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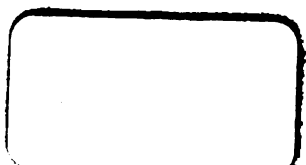
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A SYSTEM
OF
G E O G R A P H Y,
POPULAR AND SCIENTIFIC,
OR
A PHYSICAL, POLITICAL, AND STATISTICAL ACCOUNT
OF THE
WORLD AND ITS VARIOUS DIVISIONS.

BY JAMES BELL,
AUTHOR OF CRITICAL RESEARCHES IN GEOGRAPHY, EDITOR OF ROLLIN'S ANCIENT HISTORY,
&c. &c.

**ILLUSTRATED BY A COMPLETE SERIES OF MAPS, AND
OTHER ENGRAVINGS.**

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THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

THE British empire comprehends the United Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, with the adjacent smaller islands in the surrounding seas, and many colonies which, in point of extent, far surpass the mother-country. Although,

" I' the world's volume,
Our Britain seems as of it, but not in it,"

yet she exercises a more extensive influence in the affairs of that world from which she appears almost cut off, than any other single country has done in ancient or modern times. Her monarch commands a host of subjects more numerous than that which owns the sway of any other crowned potentate, excepting perhaps the probably exaggerated and inefficient population of 'the Celestial empire;' and with respect to him the old Spanish boast is most true: 'On our sovereign's dominions the sun never sets.' His authority extends over two-thirds of the globe in reference to longitude; and it may therefore without hyperbole be said that the sun never sets upon his possessions; for, within that vast range, various places have noon and midnight respectively at the same moment. Stretching also, with the exception of a few intermediate spaces, from the Arctic circle to the 33d degree of S. latitude, the four seasons are experienced in the dominions of Britain at the same time.

"In Europe," says M. Dupin, "the British empire borders, at once, towards the north, upon Denmark, upon Germany, upon Holland, upon France; towards the south, upon Spain, upon Sicily, upon Italy, upon Western Turkey. It holds the keys of the Adriatic and the Mediterranean; it commands the mouth of the Black Sea, as well as of the Baltic. No sooner had its navy, the arbiter of the Archipelago, ceased to be adverse to the cause of Greece, than on the instant the ports of the Peloponnesus found new liberators in the posterity of the Heracles: and, from Corinth to Tenedos, the sea which leads to the Bosphorus, became to the descendants of the Argonauts the road to victory, and to a second and a richer golden fleece—National Independence! In Europe the British empire permits this conquest.

"In America it gives boundaries to Russia towards the pole, and to the United States towards the temperate regions. Under the torrid zone it reigns in the midst of the Antilles, encircles the Gulf of Mexico, till, at last, it meets those new States, which it was the first to free from their dependence on their mother-country, to make them more surely dependent upon its own commercial industry:—and, at the same time, to scare, in either hemisphere, any mortal who might endeavour to snatch the heavenly fire of its genius, or the secret of its conquests, it holds, midway between Africa and America, and on the road which connects Europe with Asia, that rock to which it chained the Prometheus of the modern world.

"In Africa—from the centre of that island devoted of yore, under the symbol of the cross, to the safety of every Christian flag—the British empire enforces from the Barbary States that respect which they pay to no other power. From the foot of the Pillars of Hercules, it carries dread into the heart of the remotest provinces of Morocco. On the shores of the Atlantic it has built the forts of the Gold Coast and of the Lion's Mountain.¹ It is from thence that it strikes the prey which the Black furnish to the European races of men; and it is there that it attaches to the soil the freed-men whom it snatches from the trade in slaves. On the same continent, beyond the tropics, and at the point nearest to the Austral pole, it has possessed itself of a shelter under the very Cape of Storms. Where the Spaniards and the Portuguese thought only of securing a port for their ships to touch at,—where the Dutch perceived no capabilities beyond those of a plantation,—it is now establishing the colony of a second British people; and, uniting English activity with Batavian patience, at this moment it is extending around the Cape the boundaries of a settlement which will increase in the south of Africa to the size of those states which it has founded in the north of America. From this new focus of action and of conquest, it casts its eyes towards India; it discovers, it seizes, the stations of most importance to its commercial progress, and thus renders itself the exclusive ruler over the passes of Africa, from the east of another hemisphere.

"Finally—As much dreaded in the Persian Gulf, and the Erythrean sea, as in the Pacific Ocean and the Indian Archipelago,—the British empire, the possessor of the finest countries of the East, beholds its factors reign over eighty millions of subjects. The conquests of its merchants in Asia begin where those of Alexander ceased, and where the Terminus of the Romans could never reach. At this moment,—from the banks of the Indus to the frontiers of China,—from the mouths of the Ganges to the mountains of Thibet,—all acknowledge the sway of a mercantile company, shut up in a narrow street in the city of London!"

Extent.] Among the many approximative estimates of the superficial extent of the British dominions, the two following are from eminent authorities:

	According to the <i>Almanach de Gotha</i> . English square miles.	According to Balbi. English square miles.
In Europe,	124,970	121,200
In Asia,	1,130,242	1,132,650
In Africa,	128,137	121,000
In America,	2,704,140	2,573,000
In Australasia,	101,610	1,994,000
Total,	4,189,099	5,941,850

What chiefly occasions the difference between these two statements is, that while the former only assigns to Britain those districts in New Holland, where settlements have actually been formed, Balbi's statement assigns to her the whole of that immense island. To give our readers as clear an idea as possible of the wide ramifications of the British possessions and colonies, we shall here arrange them in one summary view:

IN EUROPE. England.—Wales.—Scotland.—Ireland.—Isle of Man.—Jersey.—Guernsey, Sark, &c.—Scilly Islands.—Alderney.—Heligoland.—Gibraltar.—Malta, Gozzo, and Comino.—The Ionian Islands.

¹ Sierra Leone.

IN ASIA. English Hindoostan.—Hindoo allies and tributaries.—Island of Ceylon.—Prince of Wales Island.—Sincapore.

IN AFRICA. Sierra Leone and dependencies.—Establishments on the Gold coast.—Fernando Po.—Cape of Good Hope.—Isle of France.—Seychelles.—St Helena.—Ascension Station.

IN AMERICA. New Britain.—Canada.—New Brunswick.—Nova Scotia.—Newfoundland.—Cape Breton.—Prince Edward's Island.—Bermuda Islands.—Bahama Islands.—Jamaica.—Tortola and Anguilla.—St Christopher.—Nevis.—Montserrat.—Barbuda.—Antigua.—Dominica.—St Lucia.—Barbadoes.—St Vincent.—Grenada and the Grenadilles.—Tobago.—Trinidad.—Establishments in the Bay of Honduras.—British Guiana on the continent of South America.—Hopparo in Patagonia.

IN AUSTRALASIA. The southern part of New Holland.—Van Diemen's Land.

Population.] The *Almanach de Gotha* estimated the total population of the British empire in 1827, at 150,374,000 souls, or above one-sixth part of the population of the whole globe, as calculated in the same work. Balbi's estimate—which we think nearest the truth—is considerably lower: amounting only to 140,450,000 souls. Those two authorities distribute this population in the following proportions:

	<i>Almanach de Gotha.</i>	Balbi.
In Europe,	21,596,000	23,400,000
In Asia,	126,500,000	114,430,000
In Africa,	249,000	270,000
In America,	1,987,000	2,290,000
In Australasia,	42,000	60,000
Total,	150,374,000	140,450,000

Boundaries and Extent of Great Britain.] The island of Britain, or Great Britain, which constitutes the chief part of the British European dominions, is situated on the W. of the continent of Europe, and stretches from about 50° to 58° 30' of N. lat., and from 2° E. to 6° W. long. It is about 580 miles in length from N. to S. and 370 in greatest breadth along the southern coast. The English Channel and the German Ocean flow on the S. and E. between it and the continent. The North Sea washes its northern shores; and the Irish Sea, St George's Channel, and the Atlantic Ocean, complete the circle, and separate it from Ireland on the W. The shape of Britain is very irregular, the outlines being much broken and indented by the sea. This gives it a great extent of coast, and many excellent harbours in proportion to its superficial area. Including all the windings of the shore, the whole circuit has been estimated at 1,800 English miles, and the whole superficies at about 87,000 square miles.

Population of Great Britain.] The population of Great Britain, according to the government estimate in 1821, amounted to 14,391,631 souls; and this population, from data afforded by the three decennial enumerations of 1801, 1811, and 1821, may be supposed to have increased at the rate of 200,000 every year since the peace. This population is generally placed under circumstances of rapid communications and easy concentration. Rivers, canals, a line of sea-coast, and the best roads in the world, secure, nearly to all, the advantages arising in a large town from concentration of numbers. This facility of intercourse is one of the great

elements of civilized strength. It was a principal element in the prosperity of ancient Greece, as well as of modern Britain and Holland. The rapid returns of merchandise are not more indicative of prosperous trade than the intercourse of human kind is essential to national vigour. Witness the cases of Austria, Spain, and Poland. The soil of England may be said to rank with the average of that of French and Austrian territory. This would have determined a population in the present age of perhaps 150 to the square mile, exclusive of Wales. But the average number of inhabitants in England, distinct from Wales, is 232 on the square mile; and this additional number is, as far as regards physical causes, to be attributed to an insular position and facilities of intercourse. The average population of the whole island is 165 to the square mile.

Having premised these general observations on the empire and the island of Great Britain, we shall now introduce the general details of history, government, commerce, &c. applicable to the United Kingdom, and then proceed to describe in succession its grand divisions, viz. England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland.

CHAP. I.—HISTORY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

THE union of Scotland and England—which had in vain been attempted by James I.—was, in 1707, effected by Queen Anne. The act of Union consisted of 25 articles, among which the following deserve notice. It was agreed that the succession to the kingdom of Great Britain should remain as it had formerly been settled for England. That Britain should have only one parliament; and that all rights and privileges should be common to both nations, except where otherwise expressly agreed. That in all parts of Britain, the English coins, weights, and measures, should be considered as the standards. That the laws relating to trade, customs, and excise, should be the same in both parts of the kingdom. That to the house of peers the Scots should send 16 representatives; and that the number of the Scottish members in the house of commons should be 45. That all the Scottish peers should be peers of Britain; and that, except sitting in the house of lords and voting on the trial of a peer, they should have all the privileges of peers. That the established churches of England and Scotland should remain unaltered, and be considered as forming an essential part of the union. A general clause reserves to the united parliament the power to alter these articles for the benefit of Scotland, and under cover of this clause some fundamental changes have already been made. Though the union of England with Scotland tended ultimately to increase the power and importance of both, yet it was not immediately followed by any important result. The measures of the nation both in foreign and domestic policy, continued in a great degree unaltered.

The British arms, under the command of Marlborough, had succeeded in checking the ambitious designs of Louis XIV.; but a party at home, instigated partly by envy at the renown which Marlborough had acquired, partly by considerations of the inutility of all continental conquests, and of the immense taxes which the acquisition of such empty celebrity brought upon the nation; and irritated too by the evident coldness of the continental powers in a quarrel which was properly their own, loudly demanded peace, and steadfastly counteracted all the designs of Marlborough and his friends. Harley and Bolingbroke at last succeeded in supplanting him in

the favour of the queen. The command of the army was taken from him, and given to the duke of Ormond; and, after many negotiations at Utrecht, a treaty was signed by the belligerent powers on the 31st of March 1713. By this treaty the British right of sovereignty over Hudson's Bay, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Minorca, and Gibraltar, was acknowledged. The peace which had just been concluded was extolled by the Tories in the most unqualified terms; whilst by the Whigs it was censured in terms no less unqualified. The remainder of Anne's reign was distracted by the never-ending altercations of domestic parties. She died on the 1st of August 1714; and with her ended the line of the Stuarts, who had swayed the sceptre of England 112, and that of Scotland 343 years.

George I.] It has been supposed by some that Anne intended to have used her influence in altering the line of succession; but either she had formed no such design, or she had not abilities to carry it into effect. At her death, George I., elector of Hanover, maternally descended from Elizabeth, daughter of James I., according to the act of settlement, ascended the throne of Britain. The Whigs under this prince regained that superiority in the national councils of which they had long been deprived. George was greatly attached to his paternal continental dominions, and in the struggle of the two factions, was often accused by the Tories of sacrificing the interests of Britain to those of Hanover. The suspension of the *habeas corpus* act, and some other extreme measures, increased the irritation of the weaker party, and in 1715, the standard of rebellion was erected in the highlands of Scotland by the earl of Mar, who proclaimed the chevalier St George, the heir of the family of Stuart, king. A few persons in the north of England, under the earl of Derwentwater, joined in the same design, and proclaimed the Pretender at Morpeth and Alnwick; but the attempt was feebly conducted, and tended only to the ruin of those who had engaged themselves in so hopeless an undertaking. The duke of Argyle in the north, and general Wills in the south, dispersed the forces of the rebels; and the chevalier, accompanied by Mar, Drummond, and a few other persons of distinction, made their escape to the continent.

In 1718, an alliance, known by the name of *the quadruple alliance*, was formed between Britain, France, Germany, and Holland; and of this alliance, a rupture with Spain was the immediate consequence. In 1718, Sir George Byng engaged and captured the Spanish fleet in the Mediterranean. The Spaniards endeavoured to retaliate by despatching a powerful armament to support the claims of the Pretender in Britain. But the fleet was entirely dispersed by a storm off cape Finisterre, and the earls Marischal and Seaforth, and the marquis of Tullibardine, who had been landed in Scotland, with difficulty made their escape again to the continent. In 1720, the Irish parliament was deprived of its right of final jurisdiction, and thus rendered dependent on that of Britain. In the same year the South Sea Company obtained an act to increase their capital by redeeming the public debts. The greater part of the nation now became stock-jobbers, and South Sea stock rose to £1,000 per cent. This extraordinary rise was followed by an equally sudden depression; the shares fell to £150 per cent., and many families were ruined by their connexion with the scheme. The parliament which met in 1722, had its attention engrossed by new reports of real or pretended plots in favour of the Pretender. Lyster, a young templar, was convicted and executed, and Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, banished on the charge of being connected with

this conspiracy. Hosier's unfortunate expedition to the West Indies, to intercept the Spanish galleons, was one of the last events of George's reign. He died at Osnaburg on the 11th of June, 1727, in the 68th year of his age.

George II.] George II. inherited his father's partiality for his continental dominions, as well as his crown. He continued Sir Robert Walpole, who had been minister to his father, at the head of the treasury.—The British monarchs had now learnt to act on principles of policy different from those of their predecessors. They were now convinced, that to oppose openly the will of parliament was to plunge themselves into inevitable destruction. Instead, therefore, of opposing the house of commons, they now endeavoured by every means to procure in that assembly a majority favourable to their designs. Walpole is said to have been the first minister who resorted to the employment of undue influence in elections. But whatever were the means which he used, he successfully engaged the nation in all the schemes of their sovereign. It was soon discovered, however, by the other nations of Europe, that the British minister would sacrifice almost every interest to his attachment to peace; and under this impression of his character, the arms of Britain, formerly so much dreaded, were now treated with something that approached to contempt. Walpole, like every man in power, had many enemies; and this part of his conduct was eagerly seized to degrade the minister in the opinion of the public. The failure of an attempt on Carthage, together with other unfortunate naval operations, completed Walpole's disgrace. And, in the meantime, the prince of Wales having differed with his father, and consequently with the minister, became the leader of the opposition. The minority, animated by so illustrious a leader, acquired new boldness; the election of a new parliament approached, and the influence of the prince filled it with Walpole's enemies. Unable longer to maintain his ground, the minister resigned; and, as a reward of his services, was created earl of Orford. But the succeeding administration following the steps of its predecessor, became equally unpopular. The German empire at this time was involved in many troubles. By a treaty between several of the continental powers, known by the name of the *pragmatic sanction*, the succession to the whole of Charles's dominions had been insured to his daughter; but the treaties of princes are binding only while they are supported by the force which made them. The emperor was no sooner dead than different parts of his dominions were seized by the surrounding potentates; and in a short time the whole German territory was a scene of warlike tumult. In these commotions there was nothing materially to interest Britain; but Hanover was threatened, and the British monarch was anxious to rescue from the danger of invasion his paternal dominions. A numerous army was therefore equipped for an expedition to the continent; and George, among whose faults cowardice could not be numbered,—having put himself at its head, encountered the French at Dettingen, and obtained a complete victory. France now threatened Britain with a new invasion in favour of the Pretender; but Sir John Norris, with a superior fleet, kept their armament in check. The battle of Fontenoy decided the French preponderance on the continent; but admirals Rowley and Warren supported the honours of the British flag at sea. Charles Edward, son of the Pretender, having been furnished by France with a small supply of money and arms, landed on the coast of Lochaber, in the western highlands, in 1745, accompanied by the marquis of Tullibardine, Sir John Macdonald, Sir Thomas Sheridan, and other adventurers. Marching southwards with

1,500 highlanders, he caused his father, then resident in Rome, to be proclaimed king at Perth. His force increasing as he advanced, he entered Edinburgh without opposition; and having defeated Sir John Cope, near Prestonpans, marched into England, accompanied by the earl of Kilmarnock, lords Elcho, Balmerino, Ogilvy, and Pittligo, and the eldest son of lord Lovat. Having taken the town and castle of Carlisle, he advanced through Lancaster, Preston, and Manchester, to Derby, within 100 miles of London; but finding himself disappointed of expected succours from France, and the English Tories, contrary to his expectations, keeping aloof, he commenced his retreat into Scotland closely pursued by the king's troops, whom he again defeated at Falkirk. With this victory his good fortune terminated. The duke of Cumberland having arrived from the continent—where he had gained considerable military experience—put himself at the head of the forces which were destined to check the rebels, and the armies having met at Culloden, near Inverness, Charles was completely defeated. The fugitive prince, after lurking for six months amidst the wilds of Inverness-shire, and trusting his life to the fidelity of numerous individuals, at length, with much difficulty, escaped with Cameron of Lochiel, in a vessel which his friends had hired for the purpose. The abolishment of the heritable jurisdictions, in 1748, laid a solid foundation for the civilization and improvement of the highlands. The war on the continent, in the mean time, continued with undiminished fury. The success was various; but the British and their allies—of whom some were unwillingly engaged in the contest—were generally unfortunate. The success of the British at sea, however, compensated for their disasters on land; for though Boscawen, in the East Indies, failed in performing what was expected of him, yet Hawke, Anson, and several other naval officers, reduced the French navy to a degree of extreme insignificance. Both parties, however, had reason to desire peace. A negotiation to this effect was opened, and in 1748, a peace was concluded at Aix la Chapelle, the basis of which was a general restitution of conquests. Pelham, who continued to be the chief person in administration, and who enjoyed an uncommon share of popularity, showed himself worthy of the national support, by adopting and encouraging every scheme which could forward the national prosperity. Under his administration, trade acquired a vigour which it had never formerly attained; and, notwithstanding the enormous expense which had been incurred in the war just terminated, and the consequent accumulation of the national debt, the credit of government had not been injured. On the contrary, Pelham succeeded in reducing the interest of the public debt, from 4 per cent, first to 3½, and afterwards to 3 per cent. The colonization of Nova Scotia, and the alteration of the style according to the Gregorian calendar, by merging the 11 days between the 3d and 14th of September 1752, were among the most remarkable events which took place during the short interval of peace. To diminish the trade of Britain now became one of the chief aims of her continental adversaries, in order to enable them to renew the war with a greater probability of entire success. But the great object of the French was to straiten the boundaries of the British colonies; and, if possible, either to wrest them from the mother country, or to involve them in unavoidable ruin. With a view to the execution of this purpose, the French used every art to ingratiate themselves with those Indian tribes by which the British settlements in America were surrounded. Animosities which, in some cases were already excited, and for which there existed plausible reasons,

in others were inflamed into implacable resentments. To give the greater efficacy to their designs, the French built forts upon different parts of the inland frontiers, and took every opportunity to render the situation of new settlers extremely perilous. An army of experienced troops was also collected, and was about to be embarked for America, where, as they had little to defend, they must undoubtedly have intended to become aggressors. But the British ministry had, for some time, foreseen that war would be unavoidable, and the proposed embarkation of troops seemed to be an evident signal for commencing hostilities. Without waiting therefore till the crafty policy of the French would have allowed them to declare war, Boscawen was despatched with a fleet to the American coast, where he took two French men-of-war, and chased the rest of the fleet up the river St Lawrence. At the same time, orders were issued for seizing the vessels of France wherever found; and before the end of 1755, about 500 of them, together with about 8,000 sailors, were in the possession of Britain, and before the conclusion of 1757, 30,000 French seamen were made prisoners. In 1755, general Braddock was sent to attack the French forts upon the inland-frontiers of the American settlements; but he suffered himself to be surprised by an ambuscade near Fort du Quesne. General Johnson attacked the French near Crown Point, on the lake Ontario, and was more successful than the unfortunate Braddock. In 1758, after various inferior transactions, the British made themselves masters of Frontenac, and Fort du Quesne, as well as of Louisburg, and of the chief French settlements in North America. Near Ticonderago, indeed, the British were again defeated; but the attack made by Wolfe on Quebec, in 1759, was completely successful. Wolfe purchased his victory and his reputation with his life; but Monkton and Townshend, who succeeded him, ably supplied his place; and Amherst soon over-ran the whole of Canada, and almost annihilated the French possessions in America. The French had not confined their undermining acts of policy to America. In the East Indies also they had carefully ingratiated themselves with the native powers, and incited them to engage in hostilities with the British. Their success in this undertaking, however, was, if possible, less than in America. The British arms under Clive were so completely successful in every quarter, that the power and influence of Britain in the East were more than ever extended, and the foundation laid of our magnificent empire in that quarter. The French were driven from their few India possessions, and have never been able to re-establish their importance in that part of the world. But the exertions of the British were not equally successful in the Mediterranean. Byng, with a fleet at least equal to that of the French, having been encountered and defeated by Gallissoniere, was tried for cowardice, and shot on board the fleet at Portsmouth; and general Blackney, in consequence of Byng's failure, was compelled to abandon Minorca. About this time Mr Pitt was introduced into the administration. This minister adopted a new system of operations against France, by fitting out an expedition to carry the armies of Britain into her enemy's country. It sailed under Mordaunt, on the 8th of September, 1757, but returned without effecting any thing; and the French, having attacked the electorate of Hanover, compelled the duke of Cumberland to sign a disgraceful capitulation. In the following year his Britannic majesty entered into a treaty of mutual defence with Prussia, and the Hanoverian forces under the Prussian general drove the enemy from their dominions. France now projected another invasion of her great rival's country; but towards the

conclusion of 1759, when the invasion was to be attempted, the Toulon fleet was defeated by Boscawen, and the Brest fleet by Hawke. In 1760 George II. died, and was succeeded by George III. his grandson.

George III.] When George III. succeeded to the throne, he was extremely willing to procure peace to his dominions; but it was judged prudent to continue hostilities until terms honourable and advantageous to the country could be procured. The French were by no means willing to accede to such conditions as the British thought due to their success in several parts of the world; and for the purpose of making a more formidable impression on Britain, a compact had been formed among the branches of the Bourbon family, to unite in carrying on the war. This rendered it necessary to declare war against Spain: hitherto pretending to be neutral, but on every occasion almost openly espousing the cause of France. When Spain took part in the war, an invasion of Portugal from that country was immediately attempted; but, by the assistance of a party of British troops, the Spanish arms were soon repelled. Hostilities, in the mean time, were carried on in Germany with undiminished fury, and generally to the advantage of France; but the unsuccessful exertions of the British upon the continent were more than compensated by their acquisitions in other quarters of the world. They had already taken from the French all their possessions on the American continent; and their colonies in the West Indies now experienced the same fate. The French islands of Martinico, Grenada, the Grenadillas, and St Vincent, were taken possession of; and the Havannah, the most important West Indian fortress belonging to the Spaniards, was wrested from them. The conquest of Pondicherry completed the degradation of the French arms in the East; and the reduction of Manilla placed the Spanish possessions in a perilous state. These acquisitions were important, and the enemies of Britain, compelled by her numerous conquests, now acceded to terms sufficiently advantageous to the British. The French relinquished all their possessions on the continent of North America; and the whole of that continent, to the E. of the Mississippi, was yielded to Britain. The islands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Marigalante, and Desceada, were yielded to the French; the island of Cuba, to Spain; the other conquered islands were allowed to remain in the power of the British; the possession of Senegal, in Africa, was secured to Britain; and Goree was yielded to France. The East India Company restored to the French all their possessions in Asia, on condition that they should maintain neither forts nor troops in Bengal; and Manilla was resigned to the Spaniards, who in return allowed the British to cut logwood in the Bay of Honduras. In Europe, every thing was restored to that state in which it had been before the war. This peace was concluded in Paris, on the 10th of February, 1763.

The terms of this treaty were not such as the country had expected. Pitt, who had retired from office some time before, characterised it as "obscuring all the glories of the war, surrendering the dearest interests of the nation, and sacrificing public faith, by an abandonment of its allies." Lord Bute, 'the new favourite,' as he was called, felt himself unable to keep his ground as premier against the opposition, now composed of the ablest and most distinguished men of the country, and, making a merit of necessity, gave in his resignation, and was succeeded by Mr George Grenville. A general coalition of parties was soon after attempted, but without success, and party-spirit raged with more keenness than ever. Among the political

publications of the day, the "North Briton," edited by John Wilkes, member of Parliament for Aylesbury, was distinguished by its boldness and virulence. A prosecution was commenced against its author; but the proceedings established against him only tended to establish him more and more as the idol of the people. The new minister, however, got parliament, after a hot debate, to declare the 45th number of the North Briton "a false, scandalous, and seditious libel;" and after this petty triumph, plunged himself into new and still more threatening difficulties. During the war which had been undertaken chiefly for the defence of the colonies in America, upwards of £72,000,000 had been added to the national debt. When the ardour of conquest had abated, the payment of the interest of a debt so enormous excited many complaints. It appeared to the people of Britain to be extremely just, that the Americans, on whose account great part of the debt had been incurred, should assist in the payment of the interest. The Americans, on the other hand, did not deny the justice of subjecting the colonies to taxes, but insisted that if the British parliament claimed the right of taxing the colonists, these colonists had a right to be represented in parliament, in order that, like other British subjects, they might be taxed only in consequence of their own consent. Mr Grenville, however, was tenacious to his purpose, and introduced a bill for imposing certain stamp-duties on the American colonies and plantations. General Conway and Colonel Barr in vain opposed the measure, and protested against the right thus assumed by the legislature; the minister carried his point, and the memorable decrees went forth which proved such a monument of British folly. Mr Grenville's party, however, was shortly after this supplanted by the Rockingham administration, which effected an important concession to the American colonies; but its measures gave offence to a high personage; and Mr Pitt, now advanced to the peerage, by the title of the Earl of Chatham, was directed to form a new ministry. The new administration renewed the foolish plan of taxing the colonies; and, on Lord North's introduction into it, Lord Chatham again retired from office. Nothing could be more impolitic and unfortunate than North's administration for twelve successive years. The act of 1767, imposing certain port-duties, was followed by the appointment of an American board of commissioners; and all the representations and complaints, as well as the demonstrations of excited feeling on the part of the Americans, were utterly lost on the infatuated ministry. In 1775, Lord Chatham's bill for settling the troubles in America was rejected by a majority of 61 to 32 voices; and next day Lord North moved an address to the king, declaring America in a state of rebellion. The result of the struggle which now ensued betwixt the mother-country and her colonies was such as had been foreseen by every unprejudiced observer. The details of the war will be found in our historical chapter on the United States of North America. London, in the month of June, 1780, exhibited a frightful scene of confusion and riot, in consequence of the popular agitation on the subject of the Roman Catholic relief bill, fomented by the insane conduct of Lord George Gordon. A heavy misfortune was also experienced this year, in the capture, by the Spaniards, of the East and West India fleets in the Bay of Biscay. The famous confederacy established by the empress of Russia, under the name of the *Armed Neutrality*, aimed a severe blow at our continental connections at this juncture; and the appearance of Hyder Ally in the East threatened the safety of our possessions in India. The raising of the siege of Gibraltar, the taking of St Eustatius, the action betwixt the

Dutch and British fleets, on the Dogger-bank, and the capture of a large part of the French Indian fleet, form the principal events in the concluding years of North's administration, who was driven from the helm in 1782.

The Marquis of Rockingham, as first lord of the treasury, and the Earl of Shelburne and Mr Fox, as secretaries of state, had conducted the new administration for a short period, when the death of the former nobleman led to new ministerial arrangements, and Mr Pitt, the son of Lord Chatham, was appointed chancellor of the exchequer. On the 30th of November, 1782, the long-protracted struggle betwixt Britain and her American colonies was brought to a close, by the signing of provisional articles of peace at Paris. But ministerial propositions having been rejected in the meeting of parliament after the recess, a resignation followed, and the celebrated *coalition ministry*, with the Duke of Portland as first lord of the treasury, and Lord North and Mr Fox as secretaries of state, was organized. This ministry enjoyed a mere ephemeral existence. On the rejection of the India bill, the two secretaries were required to deliver up their seals of office, and a new ministry was appointed on the succeeding day, at the head of which Mr Pitt, then only in his 24th year, was placed as first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. The affairs of Ireland and India, and the impeachment of Hastings, were among the first subjects which occupied the attention of Mr Pitt's ministry. A treaty of defensive alliance between Great Britain and the United Provinces, and a similar treaty with Prussia, were signed in 1788. The discussion on the regency bill engrossed the attention of parliament in the ensuing session.

The situation of France in the following year presented an object of engrossing and overwhelming interest to all Europe; nor was Britain the least interested spectator of that extraordinary moral and political revolution which now convulsed her hereditary foe. Mr Burke's celebrated "Reflections on the French Revolution," Paine's "Rights of Man," and Macintosh's "*Vindiciæ Gallicæ*," contributed not a little to direct and inflame the zeal of the conflicting parties in this country, whose violence in several instances carried them far beyond the bounds of moderation. On the execution of Louis, an order was issued for the departure of the French ambassador at the court of London within eight days; and war was declared by the national convention of France against England and Holland, on the 1st of February, 1793. The English ambassador had indeed been recalled from Paris during the insurrections which occurred in that city in the autumn of the preceding year; but the declaration of war proceeded in the first instance from Paris. A speedy termination of the struggle, in favour of the allied powers, was certainly anticipated by Mr Pitt before he lent himself to the coalition against France; but it soon appeared that the national resources of France had been greatly under-rated. These, animated by national enthusiasm, and directed by able and vigorous-minded men, were such as enabled France, single-handed, to contend successfully against all Europe. The career of her armies, under such men as Buonaparte, Moreau, Kleber, and Hoche, was every where triumphant; and on the conclusion of the peace of Campo Formio, in 1797, England stood alone in the conflict. But the war now becoming strictly maritime, her attitude, not less strikingly than that of France in 1794, exhibited the advantage possessed by a nation when combining its resources on its proper element. The events of the war have been detailed in other chapters of our work; and the limited space prescribed to our historical sketches will not allow us here to recapitulate them. We may remark

generally that in this first great contest, France and England had been placed successively in opposition to a confederacy of the other European powers, and had successfully resisted the fearful odds brought against them; each nation had also added largely to its territorial possessions; and each, though exhausted, continued capable of prolonging the contest. But the policy of peace was apparent; there remained no definite object of warfare; and accordingly a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Amiens on the 27th of March, 1802, after the retirement of Mr Pitt from office.

At the conclusion of the peace of Amiens, the sudden change from high to low prices, attendant on a transition from war to peace, affected our agriculturists considerably, and much embarrassment was experienced in the mercantile world by the surrender of our conquered colonies. The financial and commercial evils, however, which have since pressed so heavily upon us, were known only in a very mitigated form. The interest of our public debt was only £18,000,000; and the value of our currency had been restored. The affairs of Ireland too, by the union of that country with the imperial crown of Great Britain, began to assume a more favourable aspect. Still, however, complaints were general, and the breaking out of a new war was looked to by many with more of satisfaction than regret. A change of ministry took place in May, 1804, when Mr Pitt resumed his offices. The death of this distinguished statesman, on the 23d of January, 1806, occasioned the formation of a new cabinet, at the head of which Lord Grenville was placed. Mr Fox and Mr Windham were appointed secretaries of state. But the death of the former on the 7th of September, was followed by some changes in the ministry, and in the following year the progress of a bill for granting relief to the Catholics and other dissenters, a measure at variance with the sentiments of the King, was interrupted by a dissolution of the ministry. The Duke of Portland, Mr Canning, Lord Castlereagh, Lord Eldon, and Mr Percival, now came into office. The first operations of Britain, in the renewed war with France, were strictly maritime, and of course successful. The war in Spain was the first great scene in which the hitherto victorious armies of France were effectually resisted; but the triumphant issue of the struggle, and the history of its various stages, need not here be repeated. Neither does it seem necessary for us here to dwell on the recent civil and political history of our country, which is yet fresh in the recollection of all our readers. A sketch of our foreign operations will be found in our articles on the respective countries in which these were conducted; on our domestic policy, the aspect it has recently assumed, and the tendencies it exhibits, we cannot enter.

CHAP. II.—GOVERNMENT—ARMY AND NAVY—FINANCES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The King.] The present constitution of the British legislature is not older than the 13th century. Before that time the supreme government of England was in an exceedingly unsettled state; and notwithstanding the revolutions which have taken place in Britain, and the struggles between the king and the people, the prerogatives of the former have never been completely and precisely defined. They have been, no doubt, much more accurately ascertained than when the unhappy family of Stuart rendered themselves odious by ill-judged exertions of their power; but, even at this

day, it might not be easy exactly to determine the boundaries of the kingly authority. The lords' committee, in their recent inquiry into the constitution of the supreme legislature, assert that at all times a supreme authority existed in England, different and distinct from prerogative. " Their view of the various documents to which they have had recourse, has tended to convince them, that, whatever may have happened in practice, the prince on the throne was at no time considered as constitutionally above the law ; and that, to use the language of an eminent writer, Sir John Fortescue, chief justice of the king's bench in the reign of Henry the Sixth, and afterwards his chancellor when an exile in France, the government of the king of England was not simply *regal* but *political* ; and that the maxim, *quod Principi placeret, legis habet vigorem*, was never a general maxim of the constitutional law of England. But though such was probably in early, as well as in later times, the theory of the constitution of the English government, in practice the exertions of power by the crown often went beyond their legal bounds ; and there did not always exist that ready and constant control which now keeps the constitutional system in its true order. That control has been principally produced, and made effectual, by the necessary expenses of the State, which gradually exceeded, and at length vastly exceeded, the hereditary revenue of the crown ; so that the government of the country could not be carried on by the king, without frequent, and, latterly, without constant recourse to the authority of the legislature to provide the necessary supply."

The constitutional prerogatives of the British crown are : to make war or peace,—to conclude treaties of commerce, and even of subsidy,—to levy soldiers in times of urgency,—to impress seamen,—and even, on extraordinary occasions, to command all subjects to arm themselves for the general defence. He has the entire command of the fleets and armies, and the uncontrolled management of all forts and places of strength, magazines, harbours, and ammunition ; he can assemble, adjourn, prorogue, and dissolve the parliament, and can cause its meetings to be held whenever he sees proper ; no act of parliament is valid till it has received his assent ; he has the nomination of all the superior, and of many of the inferior clergy ; he appoints all magistrates, counsellors, officers of state, and all the officers of the fleet and army ; he is supreme in matters of religion, as well as in civil matters ; his will, in fact, directs the State and makes the law, but only with the consent and advice of his parliament ; and he is the supreme executive magistrate, by the same fiction of law which invests him with the supreme legislative and judicial authority.

Nor are his privileges inferior to his prerogatives. His person is accounted sacred ; and to imagine or intend his death is a capital crime. To use a common phrase, the king cannot do wrong—the law taking cognizance of his deeds only in the persons of his ministers. The power of peace and war alone would make him master of the prosperity or misfortune of his country, were not this branch of the prerogative rather imaginary than real. He may declare war, indeed, but money is necessary to conduct it with success ; and the granting supplies rests entirely with the house of commons, which thus exerts an effective control over every department of the government.

The succession is hereditary, but limited to protestant princes of the royal family ; or, in other words, " the crown, by common law and constitutional custom, is hereditary ; and this in a manner peculiar to itself ; but the right of inheritance may, from time to time, be changed or limited

by parliament : under which limitations the crown still continues hereditary." Females may succeed as well as males.

Parliament.] The antiquity of parliaments is great, but their precise origin in different countries—and among others in England—has been much debated, owing perhaps to the different acceptations in which the word *parliament* has been taken. Almost no kingdom has ever been governed without the aid of a council to direct the sovereign. If, therefore, this supreme council be called a parliament, whatever may have been its form, all nations have had parliaments. If, on the other hand, by parliament is understood a supreme council in every respect resembling that of Britain, as it is at present constituted, it may safely be asserted that few nations have had parliaments. Restricting the meaning of the word parliament to the latter sense, antiquarians have not been able to agree concerning the period when they were first introduced into Britain : some arguing, that the commons formed part of the national council under the free Saxon institutions—others affirming that the first direct evidence of commons having formed part of the national council occurs during the reign of Henry III. Not only the date, but the cause of the separation of the peers from the commons, seems to be unknown, though a circumstance of such importance that without it the British constitution could not have existed in its present state. Parliament is the great council of the British monarch, and grand inquest of the nation. The parliament can be summoned by the king only, by writs issued out of chancery, by the advice of the privy council, and at least 40 days before it is to meet. The duration of parliament was formerly three years ; but, professedly to prevent the ill consequences of frequent elections, its duration has been extended to seven years.

House of Peers.] The house of peers consists of the peers of England, 16 representatives of the peers of Scotland, and 32 representatives of the peers of Ireland. The peers cannot be arrested, except for crimes of the highest kind ; such as treason, felony, and some others. They can be tried only by their peers, who return their verdict, not upon their oath, but upon their honour. A peer may vote in parliament by a proxy, a privilege denied to the commons ; and may enter a protest against any measure with which he is dissatisfied. The present constitution of the house of peers is as follows :

Princes of the blood royal,	5
Dukes,	19
Marquesses,	18
Earls,	105
Viscounts,	22
Barons,	160
Peers of Scotland (elected for each parliament),	16
Peers of Ireland (elected for life)	28
Archbishops and bishops,	26
Irish representative bishops for last session,	4

Sum total, 403 members

House of Commons.] The house of commons consists of 513 members for England and Wales, 45 for Scotland, and 100 for Ireland, being in all 658 members. These members consist of knights chosen by the counties, citizens chosen by cities, and burgesses by boroughs. It is not exactly known, at this distance of time, who had originally the right of voting for knights of the shire ; but in England none can now vote for a knight of the shire, except freeholders worth forty shillings yearly. The elections for cities and boroughs are conducted in different modes. In Scotland the right

of voting is much more restricted than in England. The appellation of freeholder is restricted to tenants-in-chief of the crown. The commons as well as the lords possess peculiar privileges. They enjoy freedom of speech, and cannot be questioned out of the house for any thing said within it. Not only their own persons, but those of their servants, are exempted from arrest, in civil causes, while on their journey to parliament, during their attendance there, and on their return from it. The house of commons has the power of impeaching any of the king's ministers, and of directing them to be tried by the peers. It also claims the sole privilege of granting money; and consequently every money-bill must originate in it. So jealous are the commons of this right, that they will not permit any alteration to be made by any other branch of the legislature on a bill in which money is concerned, after it has passed through their hands. It is in consequence of this power that the crown can employ no servant long who does not possess the confidence of the commons. The following is a detailed summary of the constitution of the house of commons:—

Forty counties in England send	80 knights
Twenty-five cities (Ely none, London 4)	50 citizens
One hundred and sixty-seven boroughs, two each,	334 burgesses
Five boroughs, one each,	5 burgesses
Two universities, two each,	4 burgesses
Five cinque ports and their three branches, two each,	16 barons
Twelve counties in Wales	12 knights
Twelve boroughs in Wales	12 burgesses
Shires of Scotland	30 knights
Boroughs of Scotland	15 burgesses
Counties of Ireland	64 knights
Boroughs of Ireland	36 burgesses
Sum total	658 members

Parliament is frequently *adjourned* for a considerable time; but a bill always remains in the same state, and the business is resumed where it is left off. When parliament is *prorogued*, however, the session is terminated; and such bills as have not been finished, must be resumed at the beginning as if they had never been introduced. When the subjects are of importance, they are often warmly debated; and the eloquence and abilities displayed on such occasions are often of the very highest order. The votes in the house of commons are expressed by the words *ay* or *no*; in the house of peers, by the words *content* or *not content*. Each house has its *speaker*: that of the lords is generally the lord-chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great seal. The commons choose their speaker at the meeting of every new parliament; but as the office requires much knowledge of the laws of Britain, as well as of the forms to be observed in the house, the same person is generally continued during several parliaments.*

* The forms and ceremonies observed in parliament are numerous, and, for the preservation of order, are strictly enforced. To recapitulate all these forms in this place is unnecessary; but the following general outline may be interesting. Every business is transacted in the form of what is called a *bill*. When the matter is private, or not connected with the general interest of the nation, a petition must be presented, craving leave to introduce a bill; if the matter concern the nation at large nothing more is necessary than that several members move for leave to introduce a bill.—When leave has been obtained, the bill is prepared, brought in, and read for the *first* time; and the speaker, after recapitulating the substance of it, demands of the house whether it shall be permitted to proceed any farther. If no opposition be made, or if the opposition be unsuccessful, a day is appointed for the *second* reading of the bill. When that day arrives, the bill is again read, and the speaker again demands whether it shall be permitted

Privy Council.] Next in dignity to the parliament, or great national council, is the privy council, for the particular assistance of his majesty in the exercise of his prerogatives and of the executive part of the administration. The members of the privy council are styled right honourable. They are chosen by the king; and, whatever changes of administration may take place, no member of this council is ever deprived of his office. Such members, however, as oppose the measures of administration, never attend; and, consequently, are as ignorant of the designs of government as those who do not belong to the council. The members are sworn to secrecy. When deliberating, he who is lowest at the board declares his judgment first; and if the king be present, he concludes by declaring his opinion. The council is always attended by some of the secretaries of state.

Cabinet Council.] Though not essential to the British constitution, a council, commonly known by the name of the cabinet council, is chosen from the members of the privy council. The cabinet council forms the king's ministry, and is composed of such of the privy counsellors as are distinguished by their talent or leading influence.

to proceed farther. When it has been read the second time, the bill is committed, that is, if it be a bill of inferior consequence, it is referred to a select committee,—if of great importance, it is referred to a committee of the whole house. To form such a committee, the speaker leaves the chair, and his place is filled by some other member. A bill may be opposed at any stage of its progress. The measure may, indeed, be opposed, when leave is asked for bringing in the bill; but the principal objections are reserved for the committee, and there the chief debate takes place. In the committee, a member may speak as often as he chooses; but in the house a member can speak only once, except in explanation of what he may have already said. When a bill is introduced into the committee, it is read over carefully,—every clause is minutely examined,—objections are heard, and sustained or rejected,—the necessary amendments are made,—and the blanks filled up. Thereafter the speaker again takes his chair, and the house being constituted, the bill, with the amendments of the committee, is read, and the question is put on every clause and amendment. When the several parts have been agreed to, or such alterations have been made as to the house may seem necessary, it is ordered to be *engrossed*, that is, written on parchment in a strong hand. On a day appointed for that purpose, the bill is again read, and sometimes receives new amendments. After the *third* reading, the speaker recapitulates its contents, and holding the bill in his hands, asks whether it may be permitted to pass. If no opposition is made, the bill is considered as being agreed to,—its title is settled,—and, by some of the members appointed for that purpose, it is carried to the lords for their consideration.

The forms of procedure in the house of lords are similar to those in the house of commons. When they agree to a bill sent by the commons, the latter are, by a *message*, informed of the concurrence. If the bill is not agreed to, no farther notice is taken of it. If some alterations and amendments be proposed, the bill, with the amendments, is transmitted to the commons. If the commons agree to the alterations, the bill is sent back to the lords, with a message signifying that agreement. If the commons object to the alterations, a *conference* between several members of both houses is held in a room appointed for that purpose, where the difference is generally accommodated to the satisfaction of both parties; but if both remain obstinate, the bill is dropped.

All bills, except those in which money is concerned, may originate in the house of lords as well as in the house of commons.

When a bill has received the sanction of both houses, it remains in the house of lords for the *royal assent*, without which it cannot pass into a law. The royal assent may be given either in person, or by letters patent, under the great seal, signed by the king, and reported to both houses by commissioners appointed for that purpose. When the king is to give his assent in person, he appears in the house of lords, in his royal robes, seated on the throne, with the crown on his head, and attended by the principal officers of state. The commons are summoned to the house of peers, and bring along with them the money-bills, which they always retain in their custody. The titles of the several bills which have obtained the consent of both houses are read and the will of the king is declared by the clerk of parliament, in Norman French: a custom retained from the inveteracy of habit, but for which no good reason can be assigned. If the king assents to a public bill, the clerk declares *Le Roy le veut*; if to a private bill, *Soit fait comme il est désiré*; if to a money bill, *Le Roy remercie ses loyal subjects, accepte leur benevolence, et aussi le veut*. When the royal assent is refused—a circumstance which now never takes place—the clerk pronounces *Le Roy s'avisera*.

Officers of the Crown.] The officers, commonly known by the name of the great officers of the crown, are, the lord high steward of England, the lord high chancellor, the lord high treasurer, the lord president of the council, the lord privy seal, the lord great chamberlain, the lord high constable, the earl marshal, and the lord high admiral. Of these, only the lord chancellor, the lord president of the council, the lord privy seal, the lord chamberlain, and the earl marshal remain in their primitive dignity; the places of the others are now occupied by a court, rather than by a single person. Even of those that remain, the lord chancellor, and the president of the council only, from the nature of their places, retain much individual influence in the administration. The ministers of the crown are permitted by law, and compelled by custom, to have seats in parliament.

The place of prime minister—a title never recognised by the British constitution, but which experience has shown to be essential to all governments—was formerly held by the lord high chancellor, who was speaker of the house of peers, and had great influence in that assembly, where the power of government was then thought principally to reside. But since the commons have risen to be the first and most essential part of parliament,—since the management of that house has become the great object of the crown,—and since the public revenue has become so very considerable,—the first lord of the treasury, as having the chief direction of the revenue, is considered as the first minister of the Crown. This is a place of much difficulty, and of great responsibility. The lord high chancellor and the principal secretaries, hold the next place to the prime minister with regard to their influence; and are succeeded by the chancellor, the treasurer of the navy, the president of the council, the paymaster of the forces, the commissioners of the treasury, and other chief officers of state.

The chief secretaries of state are four: one for the home-department, one for foreign affairs, one for the department of colonies, and the secretary at war. Besides these, there is a secretary for Irish affairs. The chancellor of the exchequer is always the first commissioner of the treasury, and has under him four inferior commissioners, who are assisted by two secretaries, persons of great influence in government.

The chief officers of the Scottish crown were formerly almost entirely the same with those of England; but they are now only nominal officers, and have no influence in the government of Britain.

Laws.] The laws of Britain have long and justly been celebrated for their equity and the inflexible justice with which they are administered. The trial by jury alone—an institution derived from the Saxons—is sufficient, when closely observed, to ensure distributive justice. This mode of trial prevails in every part of the British dominions, though, in various parts, with some little difference. In England, the jury consists of 12 persons, who, in their opinions, must be *unanimous*; in Scotland, the jury consists of 15 persons, of whom a *majority* can decide the question. The laws of Britain, though they be precise, are justly censured for being voluminous and complex, putting it in the power of dexterous lawyers to extend their causes to a most vexatious length. The technical pedantry of the proceedings and written instruments also clogs the administration of justice. Both the civil and criminal law of England are considerably different from that of Scotland; but this is not the place to detail their differences. Mr Peel's bill for amending the criminal law of England has greatly remedied the innumerable imperfections of the old law and practice.

The particular supreme courts for the administration of justice will be enumerated while treating of the administration of justice in the respective parts of the kingdom to which they belong. The inferior part of the civil administration is a subject too complex to be detailed in this work. The number of persons employed in all public offices, in 1797, was 16,267; in 1819, it was 24,414; and in 1827, it was reduced to 22,912. The gross sum paid in salaries to those persons in 1797, was £1,374,561; in 1819, it was £3,167,441; and in 1827, it was £2,708,907.

Army.] At the close of the late war, in 1814, the army immediately belonging to the empire, and exclusive of foreign troops in British pay, amounted to 897,497 men, viz.

Regular troops	226,367
Regular militia	93,212
Army of India (including 20,000 British soldiers)	213,454
Local militia of Great Britain	196,446
Volunteers in Great Britain	88,000
Militia and Yeomanry in Ireland	80,000
Total	897,479

If to the above troops were added the number of foreign troops and subsidiaries in the pay of Great Britain at that time, the total military force of the empire must have exceeded 1,000,000 of men. In the army estimates for 1829, the total land forces of Great Britain were estimated at 109,442 men; of whom 19,719 were employed in the East India Company's territories. The total expense of the army for the year ended 5th January, 1828, was £7,876,682, and the estimated expense for 1829 was £7,034,853, including an allowance of £10,029 for the Royal Military College, and £24,155 for the Royal Military Asylum. The only means employed in raising regular troops is that of voluntary recruiting. No British citizen is obliged to bear arms, except for the defence of his country; but all able-bodied men from 18 to 45 are liable to militia service. The militia troops are raised, when required, by ballot.

Navy.] The decided superiority of Britain in maritime affairs, arises from its extensive commerce, which always affords a great number of experienced seamen. Other nations might, perhaps, accumulate a great number of vessels; but without seamen a fleet is a useless burden; and without commerce seamen can never be procured. While, therefore, Britain continues to be the chief trading nation of the world, it necessarily follows that she must be the most powerful maritime nation. The marine force of Great Britain during the war included more than 1,000 vessels of all sizes, manned by 184,000 seamen. This force has also been reduced to a number proportionate to the wants of the nation. The following is a statement of the number of vessels of which the British fleet has consisted at different periods:

Under James II. vessels of all sizes,	173
William III.	273
Anne,	284
George I. 1721,	206
George II. 1734,	208
1746,	276
1755,	241
George III. 1762,	343
1793, ships of the line,	135
frigates, &c.	133
	<hr/> 269

Under George III.	1801, ships of the line,	195	
	fifties,	27	
	frigates,	251	
	sloops, &c.	314	
			787
	1812, ships of the line,	261	
	50 gun ships,	86	
	frigates,	264	
	sloops and bombs,	191	
	brigs, cutters, and schooners,	232	

Total number in commission, in ordinary, and refitting, 1,034

According to Moreau's work on the royal and commercial navy of this country, the royal navy, on the 1st of January, 1827, stood as follows:

	Number of guns from					Sloops.	Cutters, &c.	Bombs.	Yachts.	Total of the Royal Navy.
	99 to 120	50 to 84	43 to 46	24 to 38	16 to 22					
Ships in commission	3	19	18	19	42	23	53	1	5	183
Ditto in ordinary,	16	103	69	20	33	22	39	5	3	310
Ships building,	9	15	30	3	10	22	18	6	—	113
Grand total,	28	137	117	42	85	67	110	12	8	606

There are six great marine arsenals for the supply of the royal navy: Deptford, Woolwich, Chatham, Sheerness, Portsmouth, and Plymouth. The exterior ports, as they are called, are Deal, Harwich, and Leith. The principal foreign stations are those of Gibraltar, Malta, Halifax, Quebec, the Bermudas, Jamaica, Antigua, St Helena, the Cape of Good Hope, Trincomalee, and Bombay. The expenses of the navy for the year ended 5th January, 1828, were £6,414,727, and the estimated expenses for 1829, £5,878,794. The number of men employed in the royal navy in the last mentioned year was 30,000, including 9,000 marines.

Revenue.] The following table exhibits the *net* produce of the revenue of Great Britain and Ireland at different intervals:

Queen Anne (<i>at the Union</i>)	1706	£5,691,805
George I.	1714	6,762,643
George II.	1727	8,522,540
George III.	1760	15,372,971
Ditto,	1800	36,372,000
Ditto (<i>war</i>)	1815	71,153,142
George IV. averaging	{ 1820 } { 1826 }	58,000,000
Ditto,	1828	54,932,518

The total *net* payments into the exchequer, constituting the public income of the United Kingdom, for the year ending 5th January, 1830, was, exclusive of the charge of collecting, £50,786,682

Heads of Revenue.] The 1st source of the ordinary revenue of the United Kingdom is the *Customs*, which, in the year 1828, embraced the following principal items:

Duties Inwards,	£16,914,657
Coastways,	828,305
Outwards,	118,085
Canal and Dock duties,	46,931
Duties collected at the Isle of Man,	18,337
Rent of legal quays, wharfage, &c.	17,989
Remittances from the Plantations,	13,365

The 2d great source of ordinary revenue is the *Excise*, which embraced the following principal items in the accounts for the same year:

Tea, . . .	£3,263,202	Printed goods, . .	£662,141
Beer, . . .	3,204,389	Paper . . .	622,559
Malt, . . .	3,109,807	Glass, . . .	598,033
British spirits, .	2,834,742	Candles, . . .	485,349
Soap, . . .	1,199,409	Hops, . . .	441,463
Licences, . . .	673,096	Bricks and Tiles, .	368,538

The following are the returns of the excise for the years named:

1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.
£21,620,714	£17,823,827	£17,210,548	£17,905,978	£17,904,978

The other sources of revenue are stamps, taxes under the management of the commissioners of taxes; the post office, a poundage on pensions and salaries, the crown lands, and some smaller ordinary, with several extraordinary resources.

The Post Office.] The post office system of Great Britain is justly considered superior to that of any other country. Post offices were first established in England in 1581, but were not regulated by parliament until 1656. They were extended to Scotland in 1695. In 1653-4 the post office revenues were formed by the council of state at £10,000 per annum. The following table exhibits the rise and progress of its annual revenue:

Year.	Revenue.	Year.	Revenue.
1644 . . .	£5,000	1744 . . .	£235,402
1674 . . .	43,000	1775 . . .	344,391
1668 . . .	76,318	1793 . . .	607,208
1710 . . .	111,461	1816 . . .	2,067,940
1723 . . .	201,864	1828 . . .	1,650,000

Expenditure.] The income³ and expenditure of the United Kingdom for the years ending 5th January, 1829 and 1830, stood as follows:

	Income.	Expenditure.	Surplus.
1829	£55,187,220	£49,536,970	£5,650,250
1830	50,786,682	49,075,133	1,711,548

The National Debt.] A public debt, in one form or other, has been in

3 Some idea may be formed of the immense resources of the British empire, from the following statement of the national expenditure during the war. Taking the total money raised by loans and taxes, but deducting from it £18,000,000 annually, as the probable expenditure of the United Kingdom, had peace been preserved, we find the following result:

Sums annually raised for the War of 1798.			
1793 . . .	£4,000,000	1798 . . .	£29,000,000
1794 . . .	10,000,000	1799 . . .	36,000,000
1795 . . .	18,000,000	1800 . . .	36,000,000
1796 . . .	26,000,000	1801 . . .	45,000,000
1797 . . .	35,000,000	1802 . . .	44,000,000

These sums are properly the amount raised,—not the amount expended in each year. Their great increase in the latter years of this war, was owing to the augmentation of our establishments, the depreciation of money and consequent rise of pay and stores, the accumulation of interest on the preceding expenditure, and several other inferior causes. Such was the war of 1798,—a war exhibiting an average expenditure of £27,000,000, which, though nearly double that of any preceding contest, was soon surpassed, as appears from the following statement of sums raised by loans and taxes for the war of 1803, after deducting the portion appropriated to Ireland, and allowing £22,000,000 as the whole of our probable expenditure, had peace been preserved in 1793:

1803 . . .	£29,000,000
1804 . . .	40,000,000
1805 . . .	52,000,000
1806 . . .	50,000,000
1807 . . .	56,000,000
1808 . . .	57,000,000
1809 (war in Spain)	61,000,000
1810 (Ditto)	62,000,000
1811 (Ditto)	66,000,000
1812 (war in Spain and Russia)	80,000,000
1813 (war in Spain and Germany)	98,000,000
1814 (war on the French territory)	88,000,000
1815 . . .	86,000,000

In contemplating the above unparalleled expenditure, it should be borne in mind that the sums in the latter years are greatly swelled by the accumulation of interest on

almost every country an appendage of established government. Its amount, however, was seldom allowed to exceed an anticipation of one or two years' revenue, until the *funding system*, or plan of rendering public obligations transferable from hand to hand, gave well-established governments a surprising facility in borrowing. The debt of Britain is of two kinds,—*funded* and *unfunded*. The unfunded debt consists of deficiencies in the payments of government, for which no regular security has been given, and which bear no interest; or in bills, or promissory notes, issued by the exchequer, for the purpose of defraying occasional expenses, and which bear interest, some from the day on which they were issued, others from six months after that date. When debts of this kind have accumulated, and when those to whom they are due demand payment, it becomes necessary to satisfy that demand, either by paying the debt, or by affording the creditors that security for the principal and the regular payment of the interest which they may judge necessary. Administration has always had recourse to the latter method. A particular branch of the actual revenue is mortgaged for the interest of the debt. Money borrowed in this manner is said to be borrowed by funding.—The *public funds*, or *stocks*, are nothing else than the public debts. To have a share in these funds is to be a creditor of the nation. The security of national faith is supposed to be superior to that of any private person; and, therefore, money lent to government always bears a lower interest than that lent on private security. The value of a certain quantity of stock rises or falls in proportion to the real or supposed state of the national prosperity; and hence those perpetual variations in the price of stocks, which agitate the passions of the national creditors, and give rise to that species of traffic, known by the name of stock-jobbing. Without adverting to the perplexing distinctions of funded and unfunded, redeemed and unredeemed, the following sums represent the total of our debt at successive periods:

At the peace of Ryswick, . . .	in 1697 . . .	£21,500,000
of Utrecht, . . .	1713 . . .	54,000,000
of Aix-la-Chapelle, . . .	1748 . . .	78,000,000
of Paris, . . .	1763 . . .	134,000,000
of Versailles, . . .	1783 . . .	238,000,000
of Amiens, . . .	1802 . . .	452,000,000
of Paris, . . .	1815 nearly	700,000,000
To which, adding the debt of Ireland, being somewhat more than . . .		100,000,000

Our total debt in 1815 was £800,000,000

the previous expenditure; and, that after 1810, fully 20 per cent. on our foreign expenditure is to be put to the account of the depreciation of our bank-paper. But, after every deduction, the amount of expenditure for the whole contest has been estimated by Mr Lowe at £1,100,000,000, of which £460,000,000 was added to our permanent debt, and £640,000,000 raised by the aggregate annual supplies. Compared with these sums, how insignificant were the additions made to our public burdens by former wars! That of 1689, under King William, cost annually between £3,000,000 and £4,000,000, and added in all, 20,000,000 to the national debt. Under Queen Anne, our annual expenditure rose to £6,000,000, and the addition to our public debt during the war was somewhat more than £80,000,000. In the less successful contest of 1740, our expenditure differed from year to year; but the addition to our debt amounted to nearly 30,000,000. In that of 1756, the augmented resources of the country, and the bold system of Lord Chatham, raised our annual expenditure to an average of £16,000,000, with an addition to our debt of £60,000,000. The unfortunate contest with our colonies, and the war that ensued after 1778 with European powers, were attended with an average charge of £17,000,000, and an addition to our debt of somewhat more than £100,000,000. The total of public debt incurred in the course of a century, was thus £240,000,000—a sum which, however large, formed only the half of that which we have contracted in the present age.

The total debt of the united kingdom on the 5th of January, 1828, was £785,530,826, and the annual charge thereof £30,230,037.

National Income and Capital.] The late Mr Colquhoun, in his valuable work on the wealth of the British empire, estimated the amount of new property created annually within the united kingdom and all its colonies and dependencies, or, in other words, its annual income, in 1812, as follows :

<i>Great Britain and Ireland.</i>		
Agriculture,		£216,817,624
Mines and minerals,		9,000,000
Manufactures,		114,230,000
Inland trade,		31,500,000
Foreign commerce and shipping,		46,373,748
Coasting trade,		2,000,000
Fisheries, (exclusive of the colonial fisheries of Newfoundland,)		2,100,000
Banks, viz. chartered banks and private banking establishments,		3,500,000
Foreign income,		5,000,000
<i>Dependencies in Europe,</i>		1,818,000
		£432,339,372
British possessions in <i>North America,</i>	13,215,474	
British West India colonies	28,712,466	
		41,927,940
British settlements in <i>Africa,</i>		800,300
British colonies and dependencies in <i>Asia,</i>	6,194,230	
Territorial possessions under the management of the <i>East India Company,</i>	211,966,494	— 218,160,724
		£693,228,336

The same eminent statist calculated the amount of property in the British empire, or the value of the United Kingdom and all its colonies and dependencies in Europe, America, Africa, and Asia, including the territorial possessions under the management of the East India Company, in 1812, as follows :

EUROPE.—Great Britain and Ireland, including the navy,	2,736,640,000
Dependencies,	22,161,330
AMERICA.—British possessions in North America,	46,575,360
British West India colonies,	100,014,864
Conquered West India colonies,	75,220,000
AFRICA.—British settlements,	550,500
Conquered idem,	4,220,100
ASIA.—British colonies and dependencies,	11,280,000
Conquered idem idem,	27,441,090
Territorial possessions under the management of the East India Company,	1,072,427,751

Total property in the British empire, £4,096,530,895

A variety of calculations of the same nature as the above have been made by different economists ; but it is evident that they must all be mere approximations to the truth, and are founded upon data of an extremely fluctuating, and at all times uncertain nature. It may be remarked, however, that the British dominions in the East Indies have been considerably augmented since 1812 ; and that very great improvements, and a large accumulation of property, have taken place throughout the British empire since the period in which Colquhoun wrote.

Circulating Medium.] In all commercial States, whose commerce is widely extended, various expedients have been adopted for the purpose of economising the use of the precious metals ; and during the last and the present century, these expedients have acquired a consistency and stability which have given a facility to the exchange of commodities which would have

been totally impracticable through the medium of the precious metals alone,

1st. By means of debit and credit, in open account: where goods are purchased and sold, and where, after a given time, a single payment instead of money closes the account, thus assuming the features of barter. This is also applicable to insurance-brokers, who, instead of payments on each policy, credit the underwriter for the premiums and debit him with the losses, and settle the whole at the end of the year by receiving or paying the balance by draft on a banker. If the insurers were to require money instead of credit in a current account, many millions of additional circulating medium would be necessary.

2d. By means of bills of exchange and promissory notes, by which merchants and dealers are enabled to purchase commodities from others, who circulate these bills with additional securities, by indorsement, in the discharge of debts and other commercial engagements. This species of circulating medium performs operations in the interchange of commodities to an incalculable extent, without the intervention of the money of the State; while these bills, in their transit from hand to hand until they become payable, often perform the functions of from ten to fifty times their value.

These two expedients tend to lessen the quantity of money which would be necessary for the transactions of a commercial power like Great Britain. But the most important discovery for the purpose of giving velocity to the circulation of money will be found in the system of modern banking, through which medium millions are paid and received, with a degree of facility and security which is truly astonishing; and by which the wear and tear of the precious metals are not only saved, but all the time necessary in weighing or counting bullion. In no country in the world is the velocity of circulation carried to such a degree of perfection as in Britain.*

Public Credit.] The United Kingdom enjoys a peculiar advantage in what is called *public credit*. This is a species of confidence in the resources of the State, and the stability of individuals engaged in commerce and manufactures, which is to be found in no other country. It is not the king's credit. It is not the credit of parliament. It is that which springs from the happy concoction of all the vital juices of the national frame. Its precise seat in the body politic cannot be discovered; and yet it is that which

* To count 5,000,000 of guineas, at the rate of a guinea every second, and working 12 hours a day, would employ one person nearly 4 months. A refinement in giving velocity to the circulating medium is practised by about two-thirds of the private bankers of the metropolis. According to the report of the bullion committee, the daily payments made to these bankers amounted on an average to £4,700,000. If that sum were to be paid daily by one debtor to his creditor, without the intervention of banking, and in coins even of gold of one guinea each, the multitude of people that would be required to convey the specie from place to place would crowd the metropolis from one end to the other, since even more than 4,700,000 would probably be wanted. To make payments in all the variety of sums which would be necessary by the customers of the whole bankers, and the bank of England, it might require 5, 10, or perhaps 20 times £4,700,000 daily: as the matter, however, is contrived, instead of this enormous sum of £4,700,000 in coin, these daily payments, amounting in a year to £1,457,000,000, are made by means of the comparatively trifling sum of £220,000 daily for 310 days, or £68,000,000 yearly. The merchants agree that their orders on their respective bankers shall not be presented until the end of the day, when the bankers meet, and settle and exchange all the drafts and orders on each other, paying the difference in bank notes, which is calculated to amount, on an average, to £220,000 a day. If about two-thirds of the private bankers in London pay £1,600,000,000 yearly for a part of their customers, how much must that yearly sum be increased by what the whole of the bankers and the bank of England pay, including the public revenue and loans? When it is considered also that this vast and almost incalculable number of payments are all accomplished by means of about £22,000,000 in bank notes and gold coin, the velocity of its circulation will appear to be most truly astonishing.

gives to substance its functions. It is public credit, supported by punctuality in the transactions between man and man. And it is the banking system stimulated by confidence in the solidity of the circulating medium of the national banks, and bankers of known opulence, which enables men engaged in trade and commerce to give effect to that punctuality which generates confidence. This confidence gives a peculiar character of energy to all the commercial enterprises of British citizens.

The Banking System.] The banking system having been in a state of gradual improvement during the last and the present century, has at length reached a high state of perfection. This system, however, derives its own existence and power from agriculture, trade, commerce, and manufactures. It is the land and labour of the country, in all the branches of productive industry, which give employment to the capital of the bankers. It is the bankers who, holding in deposit a proportion of the active capitals of the country joined to their own, by the operation of their system, produce that punctuality which constitutes public credit, and supply an active capital to the merchant, when an inactive capital, composed of goods or bills of exchange, cannot be turned into money to answer current demands with that exact punctuality by which alone public credit can be supported. The banking system, therefore, has become a necessary and useful auxiliary to the general circulation of the country. They are so interwoven, that the one could not, in the present state of the trade and commerce of the country, exist without the other. Yet useful as the system of banking is, and perfect as is its organization, it is still not without blemishes in its subordinate branches, which frequently trench on the great bulwark of punctuality, public credit, which has occasionally been shaken to its very foundation, from a deficiency in the principle upon which banking ought to be founded—that of absolute security to the public, as far as legislative regulations can operate in promoting unquestionable stability.

CHAP. III.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

THE commercial power of the British empire is unexampled in the annals of any other kingdom. An intelligent foreigner has observed, that it is not alone the courage, the intelligence, the activity of the manufacturer and the merchant, which maintain the superiority of the productions and the commerce of Britain; it is far more their wisdom, their economy, and, above all, their probity. The commerce of Britain owes much of its astonishing success to the national character “giving its own impulsion to the minds as much as to the actions of individuals,—exciting an irresistible ardour to surpass every rival, and above all to crush every foreign competitor, by a concurrence at once personal and national. And what means to accomplish such an end!” exclaims M. Dupin. “A cold, continuous, methodical activity,—a calculating boldness which makes the spectator risk every thing which the foresight—I might almost say the divination—of calculation, shows to him as having, on the whole, fewer chances of failure than of success. Add to these qualities, that perseverance in all undertakings, whether joint or individual, which partakes of the stability of their institutions, and whence spring in the long run that constancy of character, and those energetic virtues which exercise upon the soul an action, of which the mainspring is public spirit, inspired by the excellence of public order, and by the inviolable protection of law. To these moral causes we must

yet add the rules both of political and domestic economy, which are favourable to all interests, stimulating to all branches of industry, encouraging to all descriptions of talent. As to physical causes, we may place at their head the public roads and establishments which facilitate the transport and render safe the deposit of merchandise, both in the interior, and in the vicinity of the outports,—the art of their conveyance, and of barter and exchange,—and lastly, the creation of those products of industry which are the subject-matter of that barter and exchange."

The commerce of England began to establish itself at a period long before that of Scotland came into existence. In early periods, the trade of England was that of Britain: a few historical facts, therefore, concerning English trade may not improperly introduce our account of the present state of British commerce.

Tin—which though not exclusively furnished by England, is certainly found there in much greater quantities than in any other known place—is said to have been the first article of British commerce. The Phenicians, who left unexplored few places of the world as known to them, are said to have visited the coasts of England for the purpose of procuring tin; but of the extent of this trade we have no information. The Romans, while they possessed the island, had a cloth-manufactory at Winchester; and though little addicted to the arts of trade probably carried from this country such articles as they here found in abundance. During the subsequent invasions by the Saxons, Danes, and Normans, trade could not flourish; but under William the Conqueror, a body of Flemish weavers settled in this island, and from this period it may be said that the staple of England was coarse woollens. The tyrannic John assumed the sole power of commerce in his kingdom, and erected corporations and monopolies wherever he thought proper, or whenever he was tempted by the offer of a sufficient bribe. Under such restraints, and while subjected to the caprice and oppression of one man, trade must have been almost annihilated. No adventure was made, unless with the prospect of exorbitant profits. The interest of money, therefore became extremely high; and under Henry III. we find it often to have been no less than 50 per cent. It was, however, during the reign of this latter prince, that regulations were made respecting broad-cloths, russets, &c., and fine linens were woven in England at this early period.

During the vigorous, and in some measure, prosperous reign of Edward I. commerce met with some encouragement; but the true principles of trade were ill-understood. In 1296, the society of merchant-adventurers was instituted, for the purpose of improving the woollen manufactures, and encouraging the exportation of that national staple. Edward granted more protection to foreign merchants than they had formerly enjoyed; and though he still left them subject to the iniquitous law of answering for the debts and crimes of any of their countrymen, he allowed them the privilege of trial by jury, and fixed the duties on importation and exportation. The office of aulnager is likewise mentioned as existing in this reign.

Manufactures and commerce, during the weak reign of Edward II. were almost entirely unprotected. The disorders of this reign rendered property insecure, and consequently discouraged honest adventure and the exertion of useful ingenuity. That English manufactures were in a very rude state at this time, appears from the fact, that the wealthy men of the age often bequeathed their silk or velvet garments, formally by will, as constituting a valuable part of their property. Flanders was then the only

country in Europe where commerce was either understood or practised. The first great historical encouragement given to the woollen-manufactures of this country, was in the reign of Edward III. He protected foreign weavers, and prohibited his subjects from wearing any cloth not of English manufacture. In 1331, John Kemp, with 70 Walloon families, was invited into Eagland, and Kendal became the metropolis of the woollen-manufacture. Wool was exported to a considerable amount; but by a very absurd law, the exportation of woollen cloth, as well as of wrought iron was prohibited. The exports at this period consisted entirely of raw materials, such as wool, hides, butter, tin, lead; manufactures were almost unknown. The imports were chiefly linen, fine cloth, and wine. The value of the total exports in 1354, was £294,184 17s. 2d. This sum was in money of that period, and reduced to the present denomination and value, would be very large. It is remarkable that the value of the imported cloth, per piece, was at this time, three times as great as that of the exported; it may be inferred that the quality was also greatly superior.

The troubles of the reign of Richard II.,—the care which Henry IV. was obliged continually to exert for the preservation of that authority to which his title was so lame,—the incessant military expeditions of Henry V.,—the misfortunes of Henry VI.,—and all the miseries brought upon the nation by the bloody contest between the houses of Lancaster and York,—effectually opposed the progress of arts, manufactures, and commerce. Nevertheless, some foreign merchants residing amongst us amassed great wealth. The commercial regulations of Henry VII., however well meant, were in reality destructive of national industry. Laws prohibiting the exportation of certain articles were multiplied; the number of corporations and monopolies was increased; and other restraints imposed, which tended powerfully to obstruct the national prosperity. Fine cloths, however, seem to have been much improved about this time; and in 1458 the company of staplers paid to the crown £68,000 sterling for the customs of staple wares.

The foreign commerce of England, under Henry VIII. was confined to Flanders; and of such importance was this commerce already found, that when war broke out between the English and Flemings, it was agreed that the commercial relations of the two countries should not be interrupted. Foreign artists were now numerous in England; their superior skill and industry excited the envy of the natives, and caused the enactment of many severe and preposterous laws against aliens. The Flemings, in particular, were so numerous, that 15,000 of them were expelled at one time from the city of London. The true method of encouraging commerce still remained ill-understood. Monopolies and corporations were multiplied; the prices of labour and provisions were fixed by an absolute authority; sumptuary laws were enacted; and the legal interest of money was in this reign fixed at 10 per cent. The interest really required was probably much higher; but the lending of money on interest was generally esteemed unlawful, and the law by which it was permitted was repealed during the following reign. In 1557 glass was manufactured in England.

The disorders attending the minority of Edward VI., and the religious disturbances under Mary, were opposed to the commercial progress of the nation. Under Mary, however, we find a law which indicates greater liberality of views than might have been expected at this period. A law had been formerly enacted prohibiting any one from making cloth who had not served an apprenticeship of seven years. This law, during Mary's reign,

was repealed ; but, little to the honour of Elizabeth's penetration in affairs of trade, it was revived by Mary's successor.

Elizabeth was doubtless desirous of advancing the commerce of England, yet she certainly pursued measures of a directly opposite tendency. In particular, she exerted her prerogative in the creation and encouragement of monopolies of every description. Besides innumerable others of inferior importance, she established the East India company in 1600,—a society of monopolists whose power and possessions have since become so exorbitant. She confined the trade with Turkey to a company known by the name of the Turkey company. She likewise procured from John Basilides, a Russian prince, a law forbidding all nations, except the English, to trade with his subjects ; but this law was abrogated by his wiser successor. Several attempts during her reign were made to discover a north-west passage to the East Indies, and several colonies were founded in North America ; but in these attempts and undertakings Elizabeth's subjects enjoyed her permission only, not her encouragement or aid. English manufactures were still very imperfect, and were surpassed by those of every other nation. Much of our exports consisted in white undressed cloths ; and the profits upon dyeing and finishing, amounting to £1,000,000 a year, were lost to us, these operations being generally performed on the continent. The legal interest of money was fixed at 10 per cent. during this reign, while the legal interest in France was 6½ per cent.—a proof that commerce in France, at that time, flourished much more than in England.

The pacific reign of James I. imparted a degree of prosperity to the commerce of England which it had not formerly known. Her manufactures, however, were still inconsiderable, consisting, for the most part, of the building of ships, and the casting of cannon. Wool continued to be a great material of national trade ; and, during this reign, the exportation of raw wool was forbidden. The greater part of the cloth, however, was still exported without being dressed and dyed,—operations which it underwent in Holland. The attempts for the discovery of the north-west passage led to the discovery of Greenland ; and the whale-fishing was soon thereafter carried on with some success. The trade to Spain—originally a monopoly—was now laid open, and soon augmented in an unexampled degree ; but the nation, incapable of profiting by such a plain argument, proceeded no farther than to compel the monopolizing companies to extend their stock, and to render the admission of new adventurers less difficult than it had formerly been. The chief glory of James' reign in a commercial point of view, however, was the establishment of the American colonies,—establishments which have founded an empire of Englishmen in the new world, and which, perhaps, more than any other cause, have augmented the trade of Britain.

In 1618, The exports of England amounted to	£2,487,435
The imports,	2,141,151
In 1622, The exports were	2,380,436
The imports,	2,610,315

The number of seamen engaged in the commerce of England, during this reign, is said to have been 10,000. In 1641, the customs of England were said to amount to £500,000.

The disorders which preceded the melancholy end of Charles I. rather promoted than retarded the vigour of commerce. They were the means of carrying abroad, with a fresh ardour, the energy and activity of industrious citizens ; and the lucrative acquisition of external commerce be-

came the most fertile sources of both public and individual wealth. Notwithstanding the civil wars and commotions from 1640 to 1659, there appears to have been raised for the public service no less than £83,331,198, being, on an average, £4,385,850 per annum. During the period which elapsed from the death of Charles I. to the abdication of James II. improvements in manufactures and trade advanced with an unprecedented rapidity. The naval war carried on against the Dutch had curtailed the maritime power of that commercial people, and, in the same proportion, had added to that of England; so that the Revolution found this country a great commercial nation. The shipping was more than double what it had been left by James I.; many new branches of manufacture had been introduced; several new colonies had been established in America, and some were recovered from the power of the Dutch. In Jamaica—an island which had been taken from the Spaniards during the protectorship of Cromwell—the foundations were laid of our West Indian commerce; and the destruction of much of the Dutch influence in the East, gave new encouragement to the exertions of the East India Company, and in 1670, a board of trade was instituted, for the purpose of consulting on, and protecting the interests of commerce.

All these conspiring circumstances were greatly favoured by the Revolution,—an event which defined the rights of the prince and of the people,—which insured a degree of political and religious liberty which, in practice at least, has never been surpassed,—and which secured to the subjects their property as well as their personal rights. The progress of arts and commerce, and the accumulation of wealth, have, since that period, proceeded with an unremitting acceleration. Some parliamentary documents of the year 1739 assert, that the total value of cloths manufactured in that year may have been £1,600,000, a sum exactly double of their value in 1699. During the 18th century, these manufactures had increased in the proportion of 6 to 1; and the time which has elapsed since its conclusion has evinced a similar tendency.

“It was under the administration of Lord Chatham, in the very midst of a seven years’ war”—says the illustrious foreigner whose enlightened and liberal remarks we have so often quoted—“that we beheld the commencement of all those great interior works useful to commerce, which are now the admiration of every foreigner. Up to 1756, England had not a single line of artificial navigation; and she possessed, for communication by land, only a small number of roads injudiciously cut and ill kept up. Of a sudden, an individual conceives the idea to profit by the general impulse which industry has received, by cutting a canal, to carry to Manchester the produce of his mines. Shortly afterwards, a town which thrives, and of which the exuberant wealth seeks every where productive outlets—Liverpool—aspires to still higher designs. She is the first to form and to realize the project of opening a navigable channel betwixt the Irish sea and the German ocean. Other channels even more extended, are established by degrees in both ends of the island: And thus, within the short space of half a century, a line of canals is formed, both for great and for small navigation, for the purpose of uniting opposite seas,—basins separated by numberless chains of hills,—opulent ports,—industrious towns,—fertile plains,—and inexhaustible mines.” The total length of canals in Great Britain, excluding those under 5 miles in length, was in 1828 2,589 miles. The system of turnpike roads embraced an extent of 24,531 miles in the same year, of which the annual revenue was

£1,214,716. Moles, piers, light-houses, have been newly established, and the security of access and shelter of every anchorage upon the whole line of coast greatly increased. Such has been the progress of British commerce,—a progress which the disastrous war with our American colonies slackened but could not interrupt,—a progress which received new life by the loss of these very colonies,—a progress which above all has advanced with gigantic strides during the tremendous struggle maintained so long with the republic, the consulate, and the empire of France!

"What then," inquires M. Dupin, "has the British administration done to produce, in so short a time, public works which alone have rendered possible the great results which we have been contemplating? Nothing. It has allowed commerce a free course, and has thought that it served it sufficiently, in securing to it protection without, liberty within, and justice every where. It has allowed manufacturers, proprietors, and merchants, of great, and of moderate, and of small capitals, to confer with one another upon their mutual wants,—and the works which may be useful to them,—and lastly, upon the means whereby they may themselves undertake and execute those works." The works themselves not only insure to commerce increasing prosperity, but add to the value of landed property; while, at the same time, in becoming proprietors of canals, roads, bridges, basins, quays, and of the entrepôts necessary to commerce, British merchants acquire at once that stable interest which is attached to the possession of property inseparable from the soil, and that moveable interest which changes its objects or its seat according to the vicissitudes of external commerce. It must be confessed that there is a tendency in our ancient laws and political organization favourable to the accumulation of property in the hands of a comparatively small number of individuals; and that it has resulted from this—that while in no country is the soil better cultivated, the arts more advanced, manufactures more flourishing—while nowhere is a nobler and more skilful use made of human strength,—and while nowhere is there so much opulence and luxury,—yet, at the smallest commercial derangement, cries of distress are heard in every quarter. "There exists," says M. Passay, "between England and other countries, in which wealth is equally ill-shared, a difference which ought to be kept constantly in view. In these countries, if the people suffer without murmuring, it is because, having only the ideas and the habits natural to their condition, they do not experience the evils of retrogradation, and enjoy even the advantages resulting from the gradual melioration of their industry. In England, on the other hand, the people have declined, from the effect of laws too favourable to large properties; and hence there is a discontent with regard to social order, which it would be dangerous to allow to break out. The destinies of England have been delivered by her institutions into the hands of a territorial aristocracy. A small number of families excessively rich, and a multitude of poor, have supplanted the classes of which the graduated property formerly preserved harmony in all parts of the body politic." At the same time, it has been observed by M. Dupin, that there is another principle, the combination of capitalists, which establishes a salutary check on this tendency of wealth to concentrate in too small a number of hands; and that in practice great proprietors are not usually found the enemies of improvements and inventions propitious to industry and favourable to commerce. The great families of Britain—of England especially—have often themselves descended into the ranks of industry, and there acquired new

claims to popularity, to esteem, and to honours, in that path where, perhaps, their ancestors first acquired them. If a duke of Bridgewater, a duke of Portland, a Cavendish, or a Bedford, have constructed canals and bridges and streets; it ought not to be forgotten that British nobility owes much to the industry and enterprise of British merchants. The duke of Leeds is the descendant of Edward Osborne, a London merchant. A lineal ancestor of the marquis of Cornwallis was sheriff of London in 1378. The noble house of Wentworth was founded by a London alderman. Laurence de Bouveries married the daughter of a German silk-mercer, and, settling in England, laid the foundation of the house of Radnor. An ancestor of the earl of Dartmouth was a skinner; the earl of Craven is lineally descended from a merchant-tailor; and the earl of Warwick from 'the flower of the wool-staplers.' The nobility of Britain have been often charged with hauteur; but it is the boast of our constitution, that there is nothing to prevent the humblest citizen who shall be found sufficiently meritorious, from rising to the highest rank which a British subject can enjoy;—the sentiment implied in this principle is worthy of a free people, and deserves the imitation of every government which wishes to walk in the path of national prosperity.

Imports and Exports.] The following is an abstract of the total official and declared value of British and Irish imports and exports, from 5th January, 1818, to 5th January, 1830 :

EXPORTS.						IMPORTS.					
Offic. value.		Dec. value.		Offic. value.		Offic. value.		Dec. value.		Offic. value.	
1818	£29,223,407	£40,349,225	£87,960	£1,411,397	£10,269,271	£23,413	1818	£29,910,502	£223,797		
1819	41,900,055	45,190,150	739,966	1,423,069	10,835,800	24,017	1819	35,845,340	1,039,812		
1820	32,983,689	34,212,251	550,487	1,054,070	9,879,236	25,577	1820	29,081,640	1,095,170		
1821	37,820,593	35,529,077	573,475	854,866	10,525,926	31,066	1821	31,315,222	936,544		
1822	46,194,081	35,828,127	637,818	832,135	10,602,000	27,905	1822	29,709,122	1,008,590		
1823	43,538,166	36,176,807	679,017	788,196	9,211,928	15,639	1823	29,432,376	1,008,765		
1824	43,166,039	34,569,410	660,568	766,966	8,568,996	14,909	1824	34,501,364	1,207,169		
1825	48,024,552	37,600,021	705,515	822,383	10,188,506	16,189	1825	36,056,551	1,411,728		
1826	46,433,022	36,077,330	697,608	795,615	9,155,305	14,167	1826	42,600,954	1,547,849		
1827	40,332,554	30,847,528	632,988	689,195	10,066,503	9,784	1827	36,174,350	1,647,162		
1828	51,379,102	36,394,817	942,832	796,518	9,806,343	24,478	1828	43,189,546	1,418,827		
1829	52,019,788	36,150,379	768,519	661,378	9,928,655	17,801	1829	43,536,187	1,632,301		
1830	52,405,783	35,212,873	747,519	617,506	10,606,441	15,932	1830	42,311,640	1,609,669		

The following table exhibits the official value of British and Irish produce and manufactures exported from Great Britain, distinguishing the several countries; together with the imports into Great Britain from the same countries :

Countries.	Year ending 5th January, 1827.			
	Official value of imports into Great Britain from foreign parts.	Official value of exports from Great Britain.		
		British and Irish produce & manufactures.	Foreign and colonial merchandise.	Total exports.
	£	£	£	£
EUROPE.—Russia	2,935,945	1,644,651	574,827	2,220
Sweden	114,358	44,153	103,753	149,907
Norway	63,788	63,350	38,124	98,474
Denmark	453,325	136,413	63,969	196,413
Prussia	1,007,051	156,886	441,415	567,701
Germany	1,591,978	6,521,686	2,552,155	8,873,848
United Netherlands	1,396,392	2,631,769	2,286,092	4,967,861
France	1,225,704	426,195	656,077	1,082,273
Portugal, the Azores, & Madeira	508,846	2,011,920	104,513	2,146,434
Spain and the Canaries	551,218	334,423	229,236	563,660
Gibraltar	40,498	1,376,624	199,039	1,575,003
Italy	695,416	3,222,275	965,039	4,187,315
Malta	29,490	350,581	75,105	425,096
Ionian Islands	93,492	22,451	1,079	24,430
Turkey and the Levant	818,516	1,104,807	67,589	1,172,466
Iles of Guernsey, Jersey, } Alderney and Man }	191,226	258,588	94,648	353,236
	11,646,968	20,333,600	8,262,506	28,596,206

ASIA.—East Indies and China	8,002,786	4,340,464	638,700	4,977,165
New Holland & South sea Islands	83,352	308,397	61,222	290,259
AFRICA.—Cape of Good Hope	151,348	171,628	22,798	194,615
Other parts of Africa	218,904	155,450	138,777	294,037
AMERICA.—British northern colonies	974,823	1,339,343	310,975	1,650,318
British West Indies	7,782,135	3,535,661	253,756	3,786,468
Foreign West Indies	602,484	867,083	63,176	930,259
United States	4,984,647	5,114,808	147,583	5,262,191
Brazil	767,918	2,556,139	37,500	2,593,730
Mexico	101,380	610,155	58,259	668,415
Columbia	21,501	293,905	27,154	320,360
Peru	31,839	190,505	20,361	210,867
Chili	75,377	297,884	17,935	315,220
Buenos Ayres and Monte Video	265,622	415,582	6,317	421,900
The Whale Fisheries	327,656	—	1,489	1,489
Total	36,036,951	40,332,854	10,066,502	50,399,356
Total of imports and exports from Ireland	1,420,027	942,832	24,460	907,312

It further appears from a document laid before parliament, relative to the exports and imports of this country for the year ending 5th of January, 1829, that the total of our exports to France were only £546,000,—being less, by above £130,000, than our exports to Prussia, whilst our imports from France exceeded £2,600,000. Our imports from Russia amounted to above £4,000,000, and our exports to above £2,500,000; but the balance of trade with that country has hitherto been in our favour. From Germany and the Netherlands we imported to the value of a little more than £3,000,000; but we exported to these countries to the amount of above £14,000,000. The imports from Gibraltar were small; but our exports exceeded £2,000,000. With Spain and the Canaries the imports exceeded the exports by about £500,000. With Turkey, the exports amounted that year to above £1,200,000; and the imports to about £600,000. With Portugal, the exports exceeded the imports by about £2,000,000. Such was the relative state of our European imports and exports. The exports to, and imports from Barbary, Egypt, and the western coast of Africa, the Cape of Good Hope, Mauritius, and the Isle of Bourbon, nearly balanced each other, and did not exceed £1,000,000. Asia afforded a larger sum both in imports and exports. To the East Indies and China we exported to the value of £6,300,000, and imported nearly £8,000,000. From the British North American colonies, and the West Indies, we imported above £8,700,000, and we exported above £6,200,000. With the United States there was a difference of about £600,000 only between our exports and imports: the former being £8,600,000, and the latter £7,997,000. To the Brazils we exported above £3,822,000, and imported £1,382,000. To the South American republics our exports exceeded our imports by about £2,200,000. The gross amount of our exports in the above year was £62,716,702; and of our imports, £45,168,488.

British Shipping.] In carrying on this commerce the number of vessels entered inwards and cleared outwards at the several ports of the United Kingdom, during the three years ending 5th January, 1829, was as follows:

Years ending 5th January.	British & Irish Vessels.			Foreign Vessels.			Total.		
	Vessels	Tons	Men	Vessels	Tons	Men	Vessels	Tons	Men
Entered Inwards.									
1826	13,503	2,143,317	123,028	6,981	959,312	52,722	20,484	3,102,629	175,750
1827	12,473	1,940,630	113,093	5,729	694,116	39,838	18,202	2,634,746	152,931
1828	13,133	2,066,898	118,680	6,046	751,964	43,536	19,179	2,818,862	162,216
Cleared Outwards.									
1826	10,943	1,793,942	109,637	6,085	906,066	47,535	16,928	2,699,998	157,192
1827	10,244	1,737,425	106,198	5,410	692,440	37,306	15,654	2,429,865	142,503
1828	11,481	1,827,632	112,383	5,714	767,221	41,596	17,195	2,594,853	153,989

Nearly two-thirds of this immense traffic is carried on in the port of London, and about one-sixth of the whole shipping of the empire belongs to that port. The following statement shows the amount of shipping belonging to the British empire on the 31st December, 1825, 1826, and 1827, respectively, with the amount of their tonnage, and the number of individuals employed to navigate them :

	On the 31st Dec. 1825.			On the 31st Dec. 1826.			On the 31st Dec. 1827.		
	Vessels	Tons	Men	Vessels	Tons	Men	Vessels	Tons	Men
U. Kingdom	20,087	2,298,836	146,703	20,460	2,382,090	149,804	19,035	2,150,905	130,494
Ia. Guernsey	508	28,505	3,773	499	29,302	3,663	439	30,533	3,701
Jersey & Man									
Brit. Planta.	3,579	214,875	15,059	3,657	224,183	14,077	3,675	279,262	17,220
Total . .	24,174	2,542,216	165,535	24,616	2,635,574	167,630	23,149	2,460,700	151,415

The number of merchant-ships built in Great Britain, in successive years from 1814 to 1828, were as follows :

Years.	Vessels.	Years.	Vessels.
1814	864	1824	1179
1816	1274	1826	1719
1822	780	1827	1440
1823	847	1828	1185

Manufactures.] The principal branches of British manufactures are the cotton, woollen, silk, linen, and hardware manufactures.

Cotton Manufactures.] The various machinery now used in Great Britain, in manufacturing cotton only, has enabled one man to perform the work of 150. Now, the lowest computation supposes 280,000 men, some say 350,000 men, to be employed in it. Hence the work now performed in this single branch would, half a century ago, have required 42,000,000 men, according to some 53,000,000 ; that is to say, at the lowest computation, more than twice as many men, women, and children, as now people the British islands. Now, supposing the labour of each of these men to cost, at this hour, the very moderate sum of one shilling per day, or £18 per year, the pay of 42,000,000 of labourers would be £756,000,000, or a little more than thirteen times the annual revenue of Great Britain. Deducting from this sum the pay of the labourers now really employed at the above annual rate ($280,000 \times £18 = £5,040,000$), allowing the enormous sum of £50,000,000 sterling for the wear and tear of machinery, buildings, and incidental expenses, the result is, that the machinery employed in the cotton-manufactories saves £700,000,000 sterling to the British nation. Again, the power employed in the cotton-manufactories alone of Britain, exceeds the manufacturing powers of all the rest of Europe collectively. The official and declared value of cotton manufactured goods and cotton twist yarn, exported from Great Britain betwixt 1818 and 1826, was as follows :

Years	Manufactured Goods.		Twist and Yarn.	
	Official	Declared	Official	Declared
1818 . .	£21,292,355 . .	£16,372,211 . .	£1,296,775 . .	£2,395,305
1821 . .	21,642,935 . .	13,788,976 . .	1,898,679 . .	2,305,830
1824 . .	21,171,555 . .	15,241,118 . .	2,964,344 . .	3,135,396
1826 . .	21,445,742 . .	10,522,407 . .	3,748,526 . .	3,491,268

The period when cotton was introduced into Great Britain is not precisely known. It is certain that in 1430, at least, cotton was imported from the Levant. For several years after the commencement of George the Third's reign, the whole value of the cotton-manufactures of the kingdom was estimated to be less than £200,000. In 1782 it had increased to £4,000,000. In the year 1784, Sir Richard Arkwright obtained his patent for water-machines, which were immediately erected in all parts

of the kingdom, and in 1787 the value of the cotton goods produced in the kingdom was estimated at £7,500,000. In the year 1800 the estimated value of the cotton manufacture was £15,000,000. In the year ending 5th January, 1830, the official value of the cotton goods exported amounted to £37,269,395, and to £17,394,584 declared value, independent of the immense quantity consumed at home. Upon the whole, the cotton-manufactures of Great Britain may be said to form about 1-4th of her total industry. The superiority of British cotton is acknowledged all over the world; and even in the finer fabrics neither the Swiss, nor the Ghent, nor the French muslins, will bear a comparison with the best English and Scotch. In a large ball-room of mixed English and foreign muslin dresses, the English is quite distinguishable by Belgian ladies, who must be the best judges of effect in this article. M. Ternaux denies this; but we take the opinion of the fair sex against the fabricant, and they support this opinion when they meet with English muslin for sale.

Woollen Manufactures.] Among the manufactures of Britain, that of woollen goods was, as we have seen, long accounted the most important, it is now surpassed by that of cotton. Sir F. M. Eden estimates the value of the manufactured woollen goods annually consumed in Great Britain at £11,000,000; and if to this we add £7,000,000, which is about the average value of those exported, the total value of the annual produce of this manufacture will be about £18,000,000. Mr M'Arthur, in 1803, valued the whole at £25,560,000; and another respectable manufacturer had stated in evidence before the house of commons, in 1800, that the total annual value might be £19,000,000; but both these calculations were certainly much too high at the time. Adopting Sir F. Eden's statement, and estimating the value of the raw material at one-third of the value of the goods, a sum of £12,000,000 is left as the aggregate amount of profits and wages. Estimating the profit of the manufacturers, and the sum necessary to indemnify them for their outlay, at 18 per cent., of the £12,000,000 or £2,160,000, the total amount of wages paid in this manufacture will be £9,840,000; and taking £15 as a fair average of the annual wages obtained by the various descriptions of individuals in this department of industry, we shall get 546,000 as the total number of workmen, and at least 1,100,000 mouths, — or 1-13th part of the inhabitants of Great Britain, — as supported by the woollen manufacture. The average annual importation of foreign wool, for the 10 years previous to 1819, amounted to about 11,000,000 lbs.; in the latter year the declared value of woollen exports was £10,200,926. The following was the declared value of British manufactured woollens, and of British woollen yarns, exported from Great Britain to foreign parts, from 1820 to 1828:

Year	£	s.	d.	Year	£	s.	d.
1820 . . .	5,987,442	9	11	1825 . . .	6,042,411	4	4
1821 . . .	5,585,430	2	2	1826 . . .	6,194,926	2	3
1822 . . .	6,463,923	12	2	1827 . . .	4,982,908	16	6
1823 . . .	6,468,073	14	6	1828 . . .	5,277,861	6	2
1824 . . .	5,634,471	2	6				

England still continues to enjoy by far the greater part of this fabric. Scotland has attempted the manufacture of broad-cloth, but without success. One kind of coarse cloth, however, is successfully manufactured at Gala-shiells, in Roxburghshire; and good duffles are likewise made; but the carpets of Scotland seem to be more successful than any other of its woollen manufactures. Kilmarnock and Stirling are the principal seats of this manufacture. The English broad-cloths are universally known; but though

in the fabric of cloths of a moderate fineness the English are unrivalled, in the manufacture of superfine cloths they are excelled by the French, Prussians, and Saxons. M. Jacob reports that at a late Leipsic fair, where the wool-buyers and sellers meet in great numbers, in consequence of a dispute on the subject, a committee was appointed—consisting of individuals who were neither interested in the manufactures of England nor in those of Germany—to examine, and report on the best cloth in the city from the two countries; and their decision, we are sorry to say, was unanimously in favour of the cloths from Eupen.

Silk Manufactures.] The silk manufacture was introduced into England in the 15th century; its early progress was, however, far from being rapid. The silk-throwsters of the metropolis were united in a fellowship in 1562, and incorporated in 1629; and in 1666 they had no fewer than 40,000 individuals in their employment. The revocation of the edict of Nantes, in 1685, drove about 50,000 refugees to England, of whom those who had been engaged in the silk-manufactures of France established themselves in Spitalfields, which has continued ever since the principal seat of the British silk-manufacture. At this period foreign silks were freely admitted; but in 1692 the refugees obtained a patent, giving them an exclusive right to manufacture lustrings and a-la-modes; in 1697 the importation of European silks was prohibited; and in 1701 the same prohibition was extended to Indian silks. In 1719 the famous Derby silk-mill for preparing thrown or aganzien silk, was erected by Sir Thomas Lombe, after models clandestinely obtained in Italy. From this period the manufacture advanced gradually though slowly; but the prevalence of cottons over silks after 1785, gave it a considerable check. In 1798 the trade began to revive, and has made great progress since, chiefly owing to the facility with which raw silk can be obtained from India. The imports of raw and thrown silk into Great Britain in 1824 amounted to 3,382,857lbs., of which 1,716,734 were furnished by Italy, and 1,307,300 by the East Indies and China; in 1829 they amounted to 2,892,201lbs. It is difficult to form any precise estimate of the present value of the British silk-manufacture. Mr Wilson, a well-informed and extensive manufacturer, in his evidence before the House of Lords' committee, stated that he calculated that 40,000 hands, whose wages would amount to £350,000, were employed in throwing silk for the weaver; that £300,000 were consumed in soap and dye-stuffs used in the manufacture; and £265,000 paid to 16,500 winders. The number of looms he estimated at 40,000, affording employment to 80,000 persons, whose wages would amount to £3,000,000. If we include infants and dependents, about 400,000 mouths will be fed by the silk-manufacture, the value of which Mr Wilson estimated at £10,000,000. British silk goods are in general higher priced than those of France; but the prejudice in favour of the latter is wearing out, and in fact, the greater proportion of silks professing to be brought from Lyons and Marseilles, are direct from Spitalfields and Manchester.

Linen Manufactures.] The official value of British and Irish linen cloth exported from the United Kingdom in the year ended 5th January, 1828, was as follows:

British Linen.—Yards.		Value.	Irish Linen.—Yards.		Value.
England,	26,099,878	£1,287,044		9,182,742	£459,119
Scotland,	14,945,299	803,267		619,704	46,385
Ireland,				4,284,566	263,658
<hr/>			<hr/>		
41,045,177		£2,090,311	14,087,012		£769,192

Iron and Cutlery.] The whole iron made in Great Britain, in 1740, was 17,000 tons, from 59 furnaces. In 1796 it had increased to 125,000 tons, from 121 furnaces; and in 1827 to 690,000 tons, from 284 furnaces. The different counties in which it is made were as under, in 1827:

Staffordshire,	216,000 tons, from 95 furnaces.	
Shropshire,	78,000 do.	31 do.
South Wales,	272,000 do.	90 do.
North Wales,	24,000 do.	12 do.
Yorkshire,	43,000 do.	24 do.
Derbyshire,	20,500 do.	14 do.
Scotland,	36,500 do.	18 do.
	690,900	284

In the year 1821, 4,002 tons of foreign iron were exported from Great Britain; in 1822, 3,993 tons; in 1823, 3,332 tons; and in 1824, 4,037 tons were exported.

The British iron (including unwrought steel) exported in the years 1821, 1822, 1823, and 1824, was in tons as follows:

	1821.	1822.	1823.	1828.
Bar iron,	50,123	44,617	45,699	Of all kinds.
Bolt and rod iron,	8,464	10,665	10,596	
Pig iron,	7,386	8,259	11,304	
Cast iron,	6,555	6,698	7,269	
Iron wire,	248	357	288	
Anchor and grapnels,	560	579	1,148	
Hoops,	7,808	8,947	7,772	
Nails,	3,288	3,353	3,785	
Of all other sorts, except ordnance	6,805	8,104	8,686	
Old iron for re-manufacture,	599	920	18	
Unwrought steel	694	784	654	
	92,620	93,283	97,219	100,403

The foreign iron imported into Great Britain was, in 1821, 10,155 tons; in 1822, 12,768 tons; in 1823, 13,456 tons; and in 1824, 14,246 tons. The value of the British iron, hardwares, and cutlery, exported from Great Britain in the years after-named, was as follows: Of British iron, in 1819, £1,155,712; in 1820, £1,131,793; in 1821, £1,128,724; in 1822, £1,061,167; in 1823, £1,073,940; and in 1828, £1,226,617.

The value of hardwares and cutlery exported was, in the year 1819, £1,316,703; in 1820, £940,085; in 1821, £1,237,692; in 1822, £1,334,895; in 1823, £1,264,444; and in 1828, £1,987,204.

Tin.] The value of tin-plates exported in 1815, was £275,136; in 1816, £289,390; in 1817, £239,062; in 1818, £277,458; in 1819, £167,843; in 1820, £175,015; in 1821, £176,449; in 1822, £191,438; in 1823, £226,210; and in 1828, wrought tin £266,651; unwrought, £147,133.

Fisheries.] The British fisheries have been considered as of great national importance. Scotland enjoys a full proportion of these. It has fisheries of salmon and herrings, and is engaged to a considerable extent in the whale-fishery. The real value of the imports of oil and whale fins, as per financial accounts for 1812, was £869,551. The profits derived from the coast and river fisheries of Great Britain and Ireland, after deducting all expenses, has been estimated at £1,500,000.

Superiority of British Machinery and Manufactures.] "To those interested in the mechanical sciences, and their application to manufacture and the arts, Britain"—says a writer in the Quarterly Review—"offers larger scope of observation than any other country in the world.

Throughout the vast establishments of our cotton, woollen, linen, silk and hardware manufactures, there is even less to create astonishment in the multitude and variety of the products, than in the exquisite perfection of the machinery employed—machinery, such in kind, that it seems almost to usurp the functions of human intelligence. No man can conceive its completeness who has not witnessed the workings of the power-loom, or seen the mechanism by which the brute power of steam is made to effect the most minute and delicate processes of tambouring. Nor can any one adequately comprehend the mighty agency of the steam-engine, who has not viewed the machinery of some of our mining districts, where it is employed on a scale of magnitude and power unequalled elsewhere. In Cornwall especially, steam-engines may be seen working with a thousand horse power, and capable (according to a usual mode of estimating their perfection as machinery) of raising nearly 50,000,000 pounds of water through the space of a foot, by the combustion of a single bushel of coals. No Englishman, especially if destined to public life, can fitly be ignorant of these great works and operations of art which are going on around him; and if time can be afforded in general education for Paris, Rome, and Florence, time is also fairly due to Manchester, Glasgow, Leeds, Birmingham and Sheffield. Nor, speaking of the manufactures of England, can those be neglected which depend chiefly or exclusively on chemical processes. It may be conceded, that the French chemists have had their share in the suggestion of these processes; but the extent, variety, and success with which they have been brought into practical operation in England, far surpass the competition of any other country. These are, perhaps, from their nature and from their frequent need of secrecy, the least accessible of our manufactures, to common observation; yet they nevertheless offer much that is attainable and valuable. Connected with our manufactures are the great works of the civil engineer, which cover every part of the kingdom; the canals, roads, docks, bridges, piers, &c.; works which attest more obviously than any others the activity, power, and resources of the country. Amidst their multitude it would be impossible to pursue even the slight sketch we are now giving; and the less needful, from the greater familiarity of the objects themselves. Yet even these, though more familiar to observation, are much less generally known than they merit to be. They are for the most part seen rather as a matter of chance, than studied as monuments of art, or as ministering largely to public utility. Our system of canal-navigation, with all its great works of reservoirs, tunnels, aqueducts, locks and embankments, might alone form the subject of long and interesting study."—Yet invention is not exhausted. Animate power, which hitherto has always been used for the purposes of locomotion on land, is now likely to be supplanted on railways by a superior mechanical power, which will effect an astonishing extension of intercourse between all parts of Britain.

Forces applied to Agriculture and the Arts.] M. Dupin, taking the population of England and Scotland, in round numbers, at 15,000,000, and supposing that one-third only are employed in agriculture, and the other two-thirds in commerce and manufactures, has formed an interesting comparative estimate of the amount of animate and inanimate force applied to agriculture and the arts in France and Great Britain. It is a position generally admitted in France, that two-thirds of the population are employed in agriculture; and that a third only is occupied in manufacturing and commercial pursuits. Hence it results that France possesses—

A human agricultural power equivalent to that of 7,406,038 labouring men.
And a power of industry equal to 4,203,019

	Total	12,609,057
While England and Scotland shall have		
Agricultural force		2,132,446
Artisans of all professions,		4,264,893

Total 6,397,339

But man employs other animate force than his own in agricultural labours; and the animate agricultural force of France has increased to the following amount:

Human race,	21,056,667	equivalent to	8,406,038	effective labourers.
Horses,	1,600,000	—	11,200,000	
Oxen and cows,	6,973,000	—	17,432,000	
Asses,	240,000	—	240,000	

Total 37,278,308

And proceeding in the same way with regard to Britain, we shall find

Human race	5,000,000	equivalent to	2,132,446	effective labourers.
Horses,	1,250,000	—	8,750,000	
Oxen, &c.	5,500,000	—	13,750,000	

Total 24,632,446

Approximating estimate for Ireland, 7,455,701

Total for the United Kingdom, 32,088,147

Now, taking the proportion of this total force of 24,632,446 to the human force applicable to agriculture, we find it to be as 12 to 1: that is, the agriculturists of England and Scotland have discovered the means of creating a force 12 times the amount of their personal corporeal force, by the use they make of domestic animals, while the additional force obtained through similar means by the French agriculturists does not amount to 5 times their own.

The case is the same in regard to manufactures. The forces employed in commerce and manufacturing industry in the two countries may be thus stated:

	France.	Britain.	
Human force,	4,203,019	4,264,893	effective working men.
Brute force,	2,100,000	1,750,000	

6,303,019 **6,014,893**

Approximating estimate for Ireland, 1,260,604

Commercial and manufacturing animate power of the United Kingdom, 7,275,497

To these *animate* powers should be joined also, in the case of both countries, the *inanimate* power, or the force supplied by water, wind, and steam. When this is done, the total commercial and manufacturing power of the two countries will stand thus—

	France.	Great Britain.	
<i>Animate force</i>	6,303,019	7,275,497	men power.
Mills and hydraulic engines	1,500,000	1,800,000	
Windmills,	253,333	240,000	
Wind and navigation,	3,000,000	12,000,000	
Steam engines,	480,000	6,400,000	
<i>Inanimate power,</i>			
Total force	11,536,352	27,115,497	
	Ireland,	1,002,667	

Total for the United Kingdom 28,118,164

Thus the total of the inanimate force applied to the arts of all descriptions in France, scarcely exceeds the fourth of the same power applied to the same purposes in Great Britain; and the whole animate and inanimate power of Great Britain, applied to manufactures and commerce, is nearly treble the amount of that so applied in France, notwithstanding that the population of France is to that of Great Britain as 3 to 2 nearly. Let us now consider briefly the existing state of some of the principal branches of our arts and manufactures.

Mr Richards has instituted an interesting comparison betwixt the productive powers of Great Britain and her colonies. Bengal is about the same size as Great Britain, and each contains about 80,000,000 of cultivated acres. The revenue collected in Bengal is less than £3,500,000; while in Britain it is about £55,000,000. In Bengal the value of the gross produce of the land is little more than £1 an acre, and the expense of cultivation, from the waste of animate labour and inefficiency of implements, averages 3-4ths of the gross produce; in Britain it is £5 an acre, and the expense of cultivation is less than 1-3d of the gross produce. So that, though the gross produce of Britain exceeds that of Bengal only five fold, the net produce exceeds that of the latter twelve-fold. But the agricultural produce of Bengal constitutes nearly the whole of its annual creation of property; in Britain it forms but one-half of the aggregate gross revenue. In Bengal, 4-5ths of the population, or 24,000,000, are agriculturists, and of the remaining 6,000,000 the greater part are artisans, whose earnings are a mere subsistence, that is, do no more than defray the expenses of production; In Britain only 1-3d of the population are agriculturists,—more than that proportion are employed in manufactures, in which large capitals are invested,—and the rest of the productive labourers are engaged, under the agency of extensive capitalists, in mining, shipping, fishing, banking, &c. In Bengal, a gross produce of £32,000,000, divided by 24,000,000, the amount of agricultural inhabitants, gives £1 17s. for each individual; in Britain, a gross produce of £150,000,000, divided by 4,000,000, gives £37 10s. for each individual engaged in agriculture; and £430,000,000 divided by 17,000,000, gives £25 5s. for each individual engaged in the other arts. In the West Indies, the yearly value of the produce exported, exclusive of what is consumed by the inhabitants themselves, is £13 18s. 6d. per head for man, woman, and child, black and white.

CHAP. IV.—MISCELLANEOUS STATISTICS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

WE shall devote this chapter to the consideration of a few interesting miscellaneous statistics applicable to the United Kingdom.

Population, &c.] In Great Britain the number of individuals in a state to bear arms, from the age of 15 to 60, is 2,744,847. The number of marriages is about 98,030 yearly; and it has been remarked that in every 63 of these unions there were only 3 which had no issue. The number of deaths is about 332,708 yearly, which makes nearly 25,592 monthly, 6,398 weekly, 914 daily, and 40 hourly. The deaths among the women are in proportion to those of the men as 50 to 54. The married women live longer than those who continue in celibacy. In the country, the mean term of the number of children produced by each marriage is 4; in towns the proportion is 7 for every two marriages. The number of married

women is to the general number of individuals of the sex as 1 to 3; and the number of married men to that of all the individuals of the male sex, as 3 to 5. The number of widows is to that of widowers as 3 to 1; but the number of widows who marry again is to that of widowers in the same case as 7 to 4. The individuals who inhabit elevated situations live longer than those who reside in less elevated places. The half of the individuals die before attaining the age of 17 years. The number of twins is to that of ordinary births as 1 to 65. According to calculations, founded upon the bills of mortality, one individual only in 3,126 attains the age of 100 years. The number of births of the male sex is to that of the female sex as 96 to 95. M. Balbi calculates that of the population of Great Britain there are more than 50 in every 100 who reside in towns; while in France there are only about 33; in the Prussian States 27; and in Russia somewhat more than 12. The same ingenious statist, in his work entitled "*La Monarchie Française comparée aux principaux Etats du Globe*," published in Paris, in 1828, has furnished the following curious comparative statistics:

Relation borne by the Army to the People.

In Great Britain there is one soldier for every	229 inhabitants.
In France,	138
In the United States,	1,977
In the Russian empire,	77
In the Prussian monarchy,	80
In the empire of Austria,	118
In the Netherlands,	142

The Fleet to the Population.

In Great Britain there is one vessel of the line, or frigate, to every	82,979 inhabitants.
In France,	290,909
In the United States,	316,000
In the Russian empire,	686,250
In the Austrian empire,	2,909,091
In the Netherlands,	170,556

Representation of the People.

Great Britain, 658 deputies, being one to every	35,455 inhabitants.
France, 430	74,418
United States 187	60,129
Netherlands, 110	55,845
Norway, 75	14,000

Education, and the Periodical Press.

England has one scholar to 15.3 inhabitants, and one journal to	46,000
France,	17.6 52,117
United States,	11. 11,600
Austria,	15. 376,471
Prussia,	7. 42,090
Netherlands,	9.7 40,963

State of Education.] In the session of 1816, the house of common, appointed a committee to institute inquiries respecting the education of the poor. Mr Brougham was named chairman. In 1816-17-18, and 19, that committee made various bulky reports, each report consisting of several hundred pages of evidence, documents, &c. a digest of which was published in 1821. The tables being divided into 24 columns, we cannot give their details, but must confine ourselves to the results, and grand totals for the several divisions of Great Britain, namely:

England.

Endowed schools,	4,167
(With 165,433 scholars, and a revenue of £300,525)	
Unendowed day-schools,	14,282
With scholars,	478,849
Sunday schools,	5,162
With scholars,	452,817

This is followed by a table which shows that out of the grand total of children then educating in England, being 644,282, there were 321,764 who paid for their education, while 322,518 were educated free of expense.

<i>Wales.</i>		
Endowed schools, with a revenue of £5,817,		209
Scholars,	7,625	
Unendowed day-schools,		572
With scholars,	22,976	
Sunday schools,		301
With scholars,	24,409	

The table which follows states, that out of the total of children educated in the day-schools, 30,601, there were 17,283 who paid, while 13,318 were instructed free of expense.

<i>Scotland.</i>		
Parochial schools, with a revenue of £20,611,		912
Scholars	54,161	
Endowed schools, with a revenue of £13,679		212
Scholars,	10,177	
Unendowed day-schools,		2,479
With scholars,	112,187	
Sunday schools,		807
With scholars,	93,443	

The prefatory remarks mentioned that "the number of unendowed schools, and the number of children attending them, vary from year to year; but there is every reason to believe that they are upon the increase, and have been augmented considerably since 1818," when most of the returns now digested were made. In fact, since the date of these returns—a period of 11 years—the most extraordinary exertions have been used to promote the education of the people. The average present number of children in Britain in the unendowed schools probably exceeds 1,000,000. In 1827, there were in

<i>IRELAND,</i>	
Day-Schools,	11,823
Masters and mistresses,	12,530
Total number of children,	568,904

Sabbath Schools.] The 'National Society for promoting the education of the poor in the principles of the English Established Church,' reported in 1828 that they had 8,399 schools upon their list, attended by 550,428 scholars. In the same year, the other different Sabbath-school unions throughout the kingdom reported as follows:

In connection with the different unions in England and Wales, 4,713 schools, 55,488 teachers, 608,018 scholars.

Union for Scotland, (exclusive of many schools and societies not in connection with it) 1,576 schools, 6,200 teachers, 78,409 scholars.

Unions in Ireland, including the Hibernian Society's schools, 2,209 schools, 13,255 teachers, 180,087 scholars.

Total, 8,498 union schools, 79,943 teachers, 866,514 scholars.

Income of Religious Societies.] The following were the incomes of the principal religious societies established throughout the kingdom, as stated in their reports for 1826 and 1828:

<i>Bible Societies.</i>		1826.		1828.	
British and Foreign,	£93,285	5	2	£86,259	0 0
Naval and Military	2,615	2	7	3,771	0 0
<i>Missionary Societies.</i>					
Church Mission,	45,373	19	10	53,675	0 0
London,	40,719	1	6	41,803	0 0
Wesleyan,	38,046	9	7	45,663	0 0
Baptist,	15,995	11	2	10,393	0 0

London Moravian Association,	£3,568 17 3	£4,537 0 0
Scottish,	8,257 4 2	4,966 0 0
Home,	5,092 15 10	4,700 0 0
<i>School Societies.</i>		
British and Foreign,	2,114 19 3	2,615 0 0
Sunday School Union,	4,253 12 0	5,276 0 0
Newfoundland,	701 0 6	1,914 0 0
<i>Societies of a mixed nature.</i>		
Christian Knowledge,	62,387 3 6	72,212 4 9
Propagating the Gospel,	32,016 14 5	29,847 15 5
Jews,	13,715 2 1	13,129 0 0
London Hibernian,	8,143 3 11	7,598 0 0
Continental,	2,133 15 10	1,866 0 0
Irish Evangelical,	2,772 6 1	3,719 0 0
African Institution,	283 13 1	
Congregational Union of Scotland,	1,201 10 6	1,500 0 0
<i>Book Societies.</i>		
Prayer Book, &c.	1,781 12 0	2,189 0 0
Church Tract Society,	737 19 0	410 0 0
Religious Tract Society,	12,563 17 0	22,469 0 0

Newspapers.] A principal element in the diffusion of knowledge is the quantity of information circulated in newspapers and periodical journals. The following statement will show in what ratio newspaper intelligence was afloat in 1828, in the different principal cities in the empire :—

London Daily Morning	8
Daily Evening	6—Total 14
Dublin Daily	4
Cork Daily	1

Total number of papers published in the principal cities and towns :—

London, 50	Glasgow, 6	Chelmsford, 3
Dublin, 20	Bath, 4	Galway, 3
Edinburgh, 10	Belfast, 4	Hull, 3
Liverpool, 6	Bristol, 4	Sheffield, 3
Manchester, 6	Leeds, 4	Newcastle, 3
Cork, 5	York, 4	
Exeter, 5	Canterbury, 3	

After London, there were only 12 towns in England that published more than two papers. After Dublin, there were only 3 in Ireland—namely, Cork, Belfast, and Galway—that published more than one or two: and setting aside Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen, there is not a single town in Scotland that does. It might be added, that no paper in England, out of London, so far as we know, is published more frequently than *once a-week*; while Kelso and Greenock, two small towns in Scotland, have each a paper published *twice a-week*.

England and Wales, 74 cities and towns, published in 1828 188 papers.

Ireland, 25 59

Scotland, 13 33

The Isles of Man, Jersey, and Guernsey, possessed lately 2 weekly journals each.

The consumption of newspapers published in London alone, has been estimated to amount annually to—

Of Saturday, and Sunday (with Monday editions) papers,	3,250,000
Of other weekly, twice, and thrice a-week papers,	1,750,000
And of daily papers,	10,500,000

Grand yearly total, 15,500,000

Or about 50,000 daily: the publication of Sunday-papers being yet happily confined to London alone, many of the country newspapers have a very great sale. The whole number of papers printed annually in Britain

and Ireland on an average of the last 7 years, was 27,827,000; and the average circulation about 1,100 for each paper. But there are nearly two and a half times as many papers printed in the United States as in Britain, for less than half the population, excluding the Blacks, if a recent American calculation, estimating the total newspapers annually printed in that country at 64,400,000, be correct.

Proportion of different Classes in the National Income.] In consequence of our insular position, our canals, and our mines, the proportion of our national income, derived from manufactures and trade, is greater than in most other countries. The following table is taken, as far as regards its plan, from a publication by Mr Gray; but it was subjected by Mr Lowe to several modifications, arising in one respect from the late population return, in another from the fall in the price of commodities. It is founded partly on conjecture, partly on official documents:

Great Britain distinct from Ireland.	Taxable Income of parti- cular Classes.	Proportion to the whole National Income.
Agriculturists and all engaged in the supply of subsistence, whether landlords, farmers, or labourers	£70,000,000	30 per cent.
Manufacturers and all persons occupied in making clothing and hardware	46,000,000	20 do.
Mechanics, masons, and all engaged in supplying houses and furniture	23,000,000	10 do.
The professional classes, viz. lawyers, clergy, medical men, artists and teachers, to whom is added a very numerous, though not an affluent class, that of domestic servants	39,000,000	17 do.
The army, the navy, the civil servants of government, the annuitants drawing an income from our dividends; all, in short, who are paid through the medium of taxes	46,000,000	20 do.
The classes receiving parish support and other charitable aid	6,000,000	3 do.
Total	£230,000,000	100 per cent.

It is to be observed, that Mr Colquhoun's estimate of the property annually created in Great Britain and Ireland—already noticed—was applicable to the year 1812, since which, a great increase in the quantity, and a still greater decrease in the prices, of the property created, has taken place. Mr Colquhoun's calculation, besides including Ireland, likewise included, under the head of agriculture, a very large sum for produce appropriated to the food of horses and cattle; and the above table is confined to articles for the consumption of man. We may further assume that about 30 per cent. of our national expenditure is exempt from taxation. So that if the whole be computed at £350,000,000, the taxable part may be estimated at about £250,000,000 or £260,000,000. With respect to Ireland, a population of 7,000,000 could not exist without an annual produce of nearly £50,000,000; so that making allowance for the better circumstances of her town-population, we may, perhaps, carry the total property created in that island to £70,000,000 a-year, of which, however, the taxed expenditure cannot be computed at more than £25,000,000.

In Ireland the distribution of productive industry is very different from that of England: were it added to our estimate, there would be a great augmentation of the agricultural proportion which predominates there.

Sketch of the progressive rise of prices since the 13th century, taking 20 for the integer or highest sum, and exhibiting the other parts by their proportion to it. Abstracted from a table by Arthur Young.

Periods.	Wheat.	Beef and Pork from the Books of the Victualling Office.	Labour.	Manufactures at Greenwich Hospital.	Population.	Trade, calculated from our exports.
13th century	5½	—	3½	—	—	—
14th ditto	6½	—	4½	—	—	—
15th ditto	3	—	5½	—	—	—
16th ditto	6	—	5½	—	—	—
17th ditto	9½	—	8	—	—	—
18th ditto	9½	—	12½	—	—	—
66 years from 1701 to 1766	7½	7½	10	14½	11	5½
23 ditto from 1767 to 1789	11	11	12½	14	13½	8½
34 ditto from 1767 to 1800	12	12½	14	15½	15½	11
14 ditto from 1790 to 1803	13	17	16½	15½	16½	15½
7 ditto from 1804 to 1810	20	20	20	20	20	20

Comparison of the 17th and 18th Centuries.] From data supplied by Bishop Fleetwood, whose inquiries in regard to the particular period to which he confined them, were very accurate, and Dr Henry, the author of the History of England, Mr Young attempted an estimate on the following plan :

	17th Century.			18th Century.			Rise per Cent.
Wheat	£	s	d	£	s	d	Par.
Barley and oats	1	18	2	1	18	7	33
Butcher meat, butter, cheese, or whatever is the produce of grass land	1	9	5½	2	9	0½	
Labour	0	1	9	0	2	3	28½
Wool	0	0	10½	0	1	3	46½
Iron	1	9	1½	0	17	8½	39½ fall,
Coals	0	0	1½	0	0	1½	16½ rise.
	1	5	10½	1	16	0	39½

Repeating wheat five times, on account of its importance, barley and oats twice, the produce of grass-land four times, labour five times, and reckoning wool, coals, and iron, each but once, while iron is considered the representative of all manufactures, the rise from the price of one century to those of the other will amount to more than 22½ per cent.

Comparative British and Foreign Prices.] The following comparative table of the prices of things in Britain, France, and America, though published in 1826, is pretty nearly applicable to the state of things in these countries at the present moment :

Price of things in Sterling Value, and English Weights and Measures.

	Wheat, per bush.	Bar iron, per lb.	Beef, per lb.	Brandy, per gal.	Labour per day.	Gold, per oz.	Silver per oz.
In England	8s.	2d.	8d.	24s.	2s. 6d.	say 80s.	5s.
In France,	4s.	4d.	4d.	4s.	1s. 0d.	80s.	5s.
In America,	2s.	4d.	4d.	5s.	4s. 0d.	80s.	5s.

There is now procurable for one day's labour—reckoning gold at 80s., and silver at 5s. per ounce—

	Wheat. lb.	Bar Iron. lb.	Beef. lb.	Brandy. gallons.	Gold. grs.	Silver. grs.
England, . . .	20	15	3 3-4	5-48ths	15	240
France, . . .	16	3	3	1-4th	6	96
America, . . .	64	12	9 3-5	4-5ths	24	384

Comparative Expense of British and Foreign Artisans.] The following is a statement of the component parts of the average expenditure of a London and Parisian mechanic, extracted from a work published in 1826, and said to be furnished from authentic documents. The scale is above the rate of ordinary labour and present wages; but the end is equally answered if it points out the difference in habits:—

Annual Expenditure of a London Mechanic, with a wife and four children, supposed to earn 30s. a-week, or £78 a-year.		Annual Expenditure of a Parisian mechanic, with a wife and four children, supposed to earn 21 francs a week, or £45 10s. English money, a year.	
	£ s.		£ s.
Bread and vegetables, . . .	21 0	Bread, fruit, &c., . . .	19 0
Meat, butter, and cheese, . .	13 0	Meat, liquor, and articles of home growth, . . .	11 0
Milk, beer, and spirits, . .	6 10	Imported articles, . . .	3 0
Tea and sugar, . . .	5 10	Fuel, candles, &c., . . .	3 0
Soap, candles, and coals, . .	5 0	Clothing, . . .	4 0
Clothing, . . .	11 0	Rent, . . .	2 10
Rent and furniture, . . .	10 0	Contingencies, amusements, &c. .	3 0
Medicines and contingencies, .	6 0		
	£78 0		£45 10

It appears, therefore, notwithstanding the cheapness of food in France, the excess of wages in England is absorbed by the superiority of the fare, and the enjoyment of greater comforts. By throwing the table into another form, and showing the proportion which the several parts of expenditure bear to the whole, this conclusion will be more manifest:—

<i>English Mechanic.</i>		<i>French Mechanic.</i>	
	Parts of 100.		Parts of 100.
Bread and vegetables, . . .	27	Bread, fruit, &c. . .	42
Meat, butter, cheese, . . .	17	Meat, liquor, home articles, . .	24
Beer and spirits, . . .	8	Imported articles, . . .	6½
Tea and sugar, . . .	7	Fuel and candles, . . .	6½
Soap, candles, coals, . . .	6½	Clothing, . . .	9½
Clothing, . . .	14	Rent, . . .	5
Rent, furniture, . . .	13	Contingencies, . . .	6½
Contingencies, . . .	7½		
	100		100

These tables have been constructed with reference to France, because that country is considered our most formidable rival; but if we examine the mode of living among the lower orders, in other parts of the Continent, the contrast will be still more striking.

The following table contrasts the earnings of common handicrafts of Manchester, with those of Lyons, in 1825:—

<i>England.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>France.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
Cotton weaver,	12 0	Ouvrier en cotton,	6 0
Do. 6-4 cam. fancy goods,	15 0	Iradienne,	7 0
Woollen weaver, (Leeds)	13 6	Laine,	8 0
Silk weaver,	16 0	Soie,	16 0
Dyer and dresser,	17 0	Teindrier,	21 0
Hatter,	27 0	Chapetier,	20 0
Tailor,	18 6	Tailleur,	8 0
Shoemaker,	16 0	Cordonnier,	8 0
Iron founder,	31 6	Fondieur de fer,	16 0
Sawyer,	30 0	Scieur de long,	10 0
Carpenter,	25 0	Charpentier,	15 0
Mason,	22 0	Maçon de pierre,	12 0
Bricklayer,	22 6	Maçon	12 0
Painter,	21 0	Peint	8 0
Slater,	22 0	Ardasier,	15 6
Cutler, (Sheffield)	15 6	Coutelier,	14 6

The following comparative amount and elements of the average annual family-expenditure of different ranks of life in Great Britain was drawn up by Mr Lowe in 1822:

Families.	Provisions.	Clothing and washing	House rent and taxes.	Fuel and light.	Education, wages, medical attendance, &c.
Of a cottager expending only £37 a year,	£ 27	£ 5	£ s. 1 15	£ s. 2 10	£ s. 0 15
Of a mechanic in town; expending £52 a year,	37	7	3 0	3 0	2 0
Of the middle class, expending £250 a year,	105	55	35 0	20 0	35 0
Ditto, expending £500 a year,	167	92	63 0	30 0	128 0

Comparative Taxation.] The following is a comparative table of the return of taxation and other public burdens, in different countries of Europe:—

	Population per square mile.	Proportion of public burdens paid by each individual.
		£ s. d.
England distinct from Scotland and Wales,	232	3 2 0
England, Scotland, and Wales, collectively,	165	2 15 0
The Netherlands,	214	1 10 0
France,	150	1 4 0
The Austrian empire,	112	0 12 4
The Prussian dominions,	100	0 13 4
Denmark,	73	0 16 3
Spain,	58	0 11 6
Sweden,	25	0 10 0
Russia in Europe,	23	0 9 9

Mr Lowe, in his able work on "The Present State of England," remarks that "the maritime provinces of Holland and Zealand, are perhaps as heavily taxed as England: the charge of defence against the sea, added to the interest of a heavy debt, contracted during two centuries, rendering the total assessment probably equal to our 3*l.* 2*s.* per head. France exhibits a medium in her taxes as in her population: while, in our case, the increase of taxation since 1792 has been more than double the increase of our population, in France the proportion of the former has outstripped that of the latter only by a fourth, or 25 per cent.⁵ Still the

⁵ There is this difference betwixt the cases of France and Britain—and it is a very

average payment per head is much greater in France than in the Austrian empire, a country fully equal to France in fertility, but devoid of the means of communication afforded to the latter by better roads and a considerable extent of coast. The population of Denmark, though more thinly spread than that of Austria or Prussia, pays a larger average contribution, the chief cause of which must be the extent of water-communication. There is, however, in more than one country of Europe, an example of slender payments on the part of a populous community such as—

	Population per square mile.	Per Head, only. £ s. d.
Ireland,	237 . .	0 11 0
The Milanese and Venetian territory,	219 . .	0 10 0
The Neapolitan dominions,	154 . .	0 8 0

In Italy, as in Ireland, the far greater part of the inhabitants are cottagers; while in the Neapolitan States, the poverty implied by that condition of life is perpetuated by habits of indolence. Farther, the situation of cottagers even in a populous district, is insulated and unsuited to that division of employment and that promptitude of co-operation which constitute the advantage of towns."

important one—that the financiers of the former country obliterated the national debt with a stroke of the pen at the revolution, whereas public credit has been always maintained inviolable in Britain.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

Boundaries and Figure.] England and Wales—being that part of the British empire which forms the larger and southern part of the island of Great Britain—are situated between 50° and $55^{\circ} 45'$ N. lat. and $1^{\circ} 50'$ E. and $5^{\circ} 40'$ W. long. The sea bounds this part of the island on three sides. The sea which lies to the E. of it is called the German Ocean; that which washes its southern side, and separates it from France, is called the English Channel; and on the W. it is bounded by that portion of the North Atlantic ocean called St George's Channel, which separates it from Ireland. It is divided from Scotland on the N. by the Tweed to Kerholm; then by Keddonburn, Haddonrig, Blackdown hill, Morslaw hill, Baltonbass hill, to the sources of the waters of Kail and Jed; then by Kershopeburn, Liddal-water, and the Esk, to Todholes; and by the March-dyke to White Sark on the Solway Firth. Its general figure is triangular. The base of the triangle is formed by a line drawn from the South Foreland in the county of Kent to the Land's-end in the county of Cornwall. The eastern side of the triangle may be conceived as formed by a line drawn from Berwick on the N. E. to the South Foreland: the western side by a line drawn from Berwick to the Land's End. From north to south it is 400 miles in length; and in some places it is 300 miles broad. Towards the north its breadth is greatly contracted, so that, to the north of the Humber, the breadth is not much more than a third of what has just been specified.

Area.] The most ancient and traditional opinion states the area of South Britain at 29,000,000 statute acres, which very nearly agrees with the extent of the Anglo-Saxon kingdom. This traditional opinion was coincided in till the year 1636, when Gerard Malines, in his *Lex Mercatoria*, stated that England, according to an admeasurement of his own upon the map, contained 29,568,000 acres, of which 5,568,000 were waste ground. Sir William Petty, in his calculation of the extent of South Britain, reduced the number of acres to 28,000,000; but Gregory King, in 1696, estimated them at 39,000,000, of which 12,000,000 were waste ground. Dr Edmond Halley, from a careful admeasurement of the gross amount on Adam's map, and of the several counties on Saxton's six-sheet map, estimated the contents of England and Wales, according to the one method, at 38,660,000 acres, and according to the other at 39,938,500 acres. Dr Grew calculated that South Britain contained 46,000,080 acres; Templeman estimated its superficial contents at 31,648,000 acres; and Dr Young at 46,915,933 acres. None of these calculations, however, were, or could be, founded on correct data: as no trigonometrical survey of the country had yet been executed, and all maps of England and Wales were therefore incorrect. The following table presents the reader, at one view, with the extent, the value, and the population of all the counties of

England and Wales, according to Arrowsmith's map, dated 1815-16, which was founded on the trigonometrical survey, the returns of property-tax for the year ending 1811, and the government census of 1821 :

Counties.	Square Statute Miles.	Rental of Land.	Annual value of square mle.	Population 1821.	Increase per cent. from 1811 to 1821.	Number of parishes.
ENGLAND.						
Bedford	463	4272,621	£2619	83,716	19	123
Berks	756	405,180	611	131,977	12	151
Buckingham	740	468,677	713	134,068	14	202
Cambridge	858	453,215	871	121,909	21	167
Chester	1,052	670,864	684	270,068	19	90
Cornwall	1,267	566,472	470	227,447	19	203
Cumberland	1,478	469,250	387	135,194	19	104
Derby	1,088	621,683	684	213,533	15	193
Devon	2,579	1,217,547	516	438,040	15	265
Dorset	1,005	480,085	538	144,469	16	71
Durham	1,061	506,063	500	207,673	17	75
Essex	1,332	904,615	602	286,484	15	406
Gloucester	1,256	805,183	680	336,843	18	289
Hereford	860	453,607	565	103,243	10	219
Hertford	528	342,350	734	129,714	16	128
Huntingdon	370	302,076	574	48,771	16	103
Kent	1,537	868,188	651	626,016	14	411
Leicester	1,231	1,270,344	718	1,052,059	16	70
Lincoln	804	702,402	891	174,571	16	216
Middlesex	2,748	1,381,540	584	383,036	19	680
Monmouth	322	349,149	1,325	1,144,531	20	197
Norfolk	498	203,573	436	71,833	16	125
Northampton	2,092	121,842	500	344,368	18	731
Northumberland	1,017	626,337	702	162,483	15	306
Nottingham	1,871	906,789	580	196,965	16	88
Oxford	837	534,402	659	186,873	15	212
Salop (Shropshire)	752	497,025	709	136,971	13	217
Somerset	149	90,174	602	18,497	13	62
Stafford	1,341	738,465	610	206,153	6	216
Suffolk	1,648	1,355,108	878	355,314	17	475
Surrey	1,628	504,020	435	235,238	15	258
Wiltshire	1,146	786,036	683	241,040	16	145
Worcester	1,519	694,078	537	270,542	16	510
Warwick	756	369,901	550	308,658	23	142
Westmoreland	1,463	549,460	445	233,019	23	340
Wilts	902	645,139	744	274,392	20	205
Worcester	763	221,556	209	51,350	12	32
York	1,379	810,627	652	222,157	15	300
East Riding	729	516,203	772	184,494	15	171
West Riding	5,961	3,111,618	541	180,449	16	237
				183,381	16	163
				799,357	23	183
Total of England	50,535	27,920,354	595	11,361,437	18	9,860
WALES.						
Anglesea	271	65,121	268	45,063	22	67
Brecon	754	108,447	154	43,613	16	66
Cardigan	675	101,550	173	67,784	14	65
Caernarvon	974	224,122	244	90,239	17	77
Denbigh	544	90,848	192	57,956	17	60
Flint	633	182,674	331	76,511	19	89
Glamorgan	244	118,615	536	53,784	16	27
Merioneth	792	210,760	284	101,737	20	135
Montgomery	663	83,451	137	34,392	15	34
Pembroke	839	152,008	198	59,869	15	51
Radnor	610	160,617	284	74,009	20	141
	426	86,250	229	22,459	10	52
Total of Wales	7,425	1,569,498	235	17,439	16	833
Grand Total	57,960	29,479,852	508	11,978,875	17.1	10,693

CHAP. I.—HISTORY OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

The ancient name of Britain was *Albion*. Regarding this name various etymologies have been proposed, with which we need not trouble the reader, as most of them are fanciful, and all of them conjectural merely. The first peopling of Great Britain is a subject of profound obscurity. Its

earliest population is generally believed to have been Celtic. The southern Celts—the Gaels of history—are supposed to have passed from the nearest shores of the continent, and to have taken possession of the southern parts of Britain about 1000 years prior to the Christian era. To the Celtic population of England succeeded the Gothic, who having seized upon that part of Gaul which is nearest to Great Britain—where they acquired the denomination of *Belgæ*—passed over to England, and drove the primitive inhabitants into the interior parts. When Cæsar first invaded Britain, he found the inhabitants divided into many petty States. The following appear to have been the tribes among whom the southern part of the island was at this time divided:

<i>Tribes.</i>	<i>Possessions.</i>
1. <i>Danmonii</i> ,	Cornwall and Devonshire.
2. <i>Durotriges</i> ,	Dorsetshire.
3. <i>Belgæ</i> ,	Somersetshire, Wiltshire, and the northern part of Hampshire.
4. <i>Atrebatii</i> ,	Berkshire.
5. <i>Regni</i> ,	Surrey, Sussex, and the south of Hampshire.
6. <i>Canti</i> ,	Kent.
7. <i>Trinovantes</i> ,	Middlesex and Essex.
8. <i>Iceni</i> ,	Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridgeshire, and Huntingdonshire.
9. <i>Cattiœchlani</i> ,	Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, and Hertfordshire.
10. <i>Dobunæ</i> ,	Oxfordshire and Gloucestershire.
11. <i>Sikanni</i> ,	Herefordshire, Radnorshire, Monmouthshire, Brecknockshire, and Glamorganshire.
12. <i>Demetæ</i> ,	Caermarthenshire, Pembrokeshire, and Cardiganshire.
13. <i>Ordovices</i> ,	Flintshire, Denbighshire, Merionethshire, Montgomeryshire, Caernarvonshire, and Anglesea.
14. <i>Cornavii</i> ,	Cheshire, Shropshire, Staffordshire, Warwickshire, and Worcestershire.
15. <i>Coritani</i> ,	Lincolnshire, Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Rutlandshire, and Northamptonshire.
16. <i>Brigantes</i> ,	Yorkshire, Lancashire, Westmoreland, Cumberlan ^d , and Durham.
17. <i>Ostadini</i> ,	Northumberland.

The Romans found all these tribes in the very rudest state with regard to the arts of life; their historians speak with respect, however, of their intellectual and moral character. Their persons were tall; their clothing was untanned skins; and they painted the naked parts of their body with a blue colour, decorating the skin with figures of various objects, particularly of the heavenly bodies. They shaved all their beards except the upper lip, which, like the Gauls, they suffered to grow to a great length. Agriculture had been introduced into Britain by the Belgic Gauls; but the general food was milk and the flesh of their herds. Superstition had forbid the use of fish, and several kinds of animal food, even to these poor savages. Their towns were a confused assemblage of huts covered with turf or skins, and little superior to the kraals of the Hottentots. These, for the sake of security, were generally planted in the midst of some wood or morass, and surrounded with palisadoes of trees piled upon each other, like the fortifications observed among the New Zealanders. They seem to have been able to fabricate warlike weapons from their metals. Their arms were small targets, and swords and spears; and they used a very formidable kind of chariot in battle, which was armed with iron scythes projecting from the axle. Little is known of the limits of regal authority amongst them. Dr Henry conjectures that the popular power was considerable; but whatever either the royal or popular power may have been, the priestly influence was certainly paramount to both. From Cæsar we learn that the British Druids were the judges of the people, and that they dispensed rewards and inflicted punishments without the sanction or interference of any higher tribunal.

Roman Invasion.] Such were the inhabitants of this island when Cæsar carried the arms of Rome into England, with no better pretext for this act of invasion than a rumour that these islanders had lent some assistance to the Gauls in their struggle with the Romans. Having embarked the infantry of two legions, at a port of France, supposed to have been Calais, on board 80 transports, and ordered the cavalry of those legions to embark at another port 8 miles distant, on board 18 transports, he sailed in person with the infantry transports, on the 26th of August, 55 B. C.—The cavalry transports were driven back in a storm; but Cæsar effected a landing with his infantry at or near Deal. The Roman conqueror, even by his own account, gained scanty laurels in Britain; and such as they were, they seem to have been hardly earned. Lucan plainly affirms that he was glad to turn his back upon his new opponents and seek his safety in flight.

"Territa quassitis ostendit terga Britannis."

And Tacitus, in his life of Agricola, expressly says, that Cæsar only gave the Romans a view, not the possession, of Britain: "Potest videri ostendisse posteris, non tradidisse." Britain indeed presented little to interest the man whose ambition grasped at the sovereignty of the Roman empire, but the attempt which Cæsar after two expeditions left unfinished, was renewed by Claudius with greater success; and Agricola, the general of Domitian, finished what the generals of Claudius had begun. Agricola, in his second campaign, carried his arms to the north, and subdued tribes which had never before submitted to the Romans. During his seven years' service in Britain, he extended his conquests to the most northern part of the island, and his fleet circumnavigated the whole. To secure his conquests he erected a fortification, stretching between the Forth and the Clyde, the remains of which are yet visible. Adrian abandoned this fortified frontier, and retiring, either from choice or necessity, a considerable way, formed another rampart between the Eden and the Tyne, or Carlisle and Newcastle. The emperor, Severus, afterwards substituted a wall, in place of, or rather parallel with this rampart,* which withstood the attacks

* The wall of Severus is one of the most remarkable remains of Roman art which are to be found in England. It extends from the river Tyne on the E. to Bowness on the Solway Firth upon the W. It was built about the beginning of the 3d century, most probably in the years 209 and 210. Its length was somewhat more than 68 British miles. On its N. side ran a wide and deep ditch, the precise dimensions of which are unknown. The wall itself was of freestone, founded on piles where the ground was unfavourable. The outward surface, on both sides, was built of square stones; the inward space was filled with broad thin stones, placed obliquely on their edges, and strongly cemented with mortar. The thickness of the wall was 8 feet, and the height 18 feet exclusive of the parapet. These dimensions are recorded by Bede, who lived in its neighbourhood at a time when many parts of it yet remained entire. Almost every vestige of it is now obliterated, but not so much from the destruction of time—which it could long have resisted—as from the barbarous industry of the neighbouring inhabitants, who during many ages, derived from it the principal materials of which their houses were erected. This wall, so substantially built, was no less strongly fortified. The fortresses erected upon it, were of three kinds: *stationes*, sometimes called *castra*, 'stations,' or 'garrisons,' *castella*, 'castles,'—and *turres*, 'turrets.'—The stations were those places which were appointed for the reception of such garrisons as had in charge the protection of the frontier. Their number was 18. Their size and figure differed according to the nature of the ground and position. They joined the wall—as all the other fortifications did—upon its south side, and were strongly fortified with walls and ditches. The following table exhibits the number of the stations,—their Latin names,—the modern appellations of the same places in English,—and their distances from each other in miles, furlongs, and chains. The order is from E. to W., and the distance opposite to a station is that to the nearest in the same direction:

No.	Latin name.	English name.	M.	F.	Ch.
1.	Legedunum,	Cousin's house,	3	5	1½
2.	Pons Ælli,	Newcastle,	2	0	9
3.	Conducum,	Benwell hill	5	6	5

of the northern Britons, until the successful invasion of the Roman dominions in Italy by the surrounding nations, forced them to withdraw their legions from Britain for the purpose of defending the more important parts of the empire. The southern part of the island was then left defenceless to the northern hordes. Gallio, of Ravenna, commanded the last detachment of Roman troops sent to our island. After repelling the savages of the north, repairing Severus's wall, and supplying them with weapons, the Romans left the Britons to defend themselves, and took their departure at the distance of 475 years from the first landing of Julius Cæsar. The Britons were now free, but their long subjection to the Romans had unfitted them for the enjoyment of liberty. They had acquired all the effeminating arts of civilization, but they had not retained their original vigour and bravery, nor had they compensated for the loss by the acquisition of military discipline. They could no longer, therefore, withstand the attacks of their ferocious northern neighbours. The Roman wall, no longer defended by Roman discipline and courage, proved a feeble barrier against the Scots and Picts, who quickly passed it, and drove the terrified Britons to the southern extremities of the island. In this situation, overpowered by foreign enemies, distracted by civil contentions, and thinned by pestilence, the Britons addressed themselves in a letter entitled 'The Groans of the Britons,' to Cælius, the Roman prefect, in Gaul; but however much the Roman might pity the suppliants, he could spare them no assistance, for Attila king of the Huns now threatened the empire. We may here notice the Roman division of Britain while the island remained in their hands. At first its general and obvious divisions were *Britannia Romana*, comprising all that had been subjugated by their arms; and *Britannia Barbara*, including those districts which still maintained their

4.	Vindobala,	Rutchester,	7	0	8½
5.	Hannum,	Halton-chesters,	5	1	7
6.	Cilurnum,	Walwick-chesters,	3	1	8
7.	Procolitia,	Carrawburgh,	4	5	3½
8.	Borrevicus,	Housesteads,	3	1	8
9.	Vindolana,	Little-chesters,	3	6	4
10.	Æsica,	Great-chesters,	2	1	6½
11.	Magna,	Carrvoran,	2	6	0
12.	Amboglanna,	Bardowald,	6	2	8
13.	Petrians,	Cambeck,	2	6	6
14.	Aballaba,	Watchcross,	5	1	9
15.	Congavata,	Stanwix,	3	3	6
16.	Axelodunum,	Brugh,	4	0	6
17.	Gabresentum,	Brumbrugh,	3	4	1
18.	Tannocelum,	Bowness,			

Length of the wall, 63 3 3

The castles were generally, though not always, at the distance of 7 furlongs from each other. They were of a square form, being 66 feet on every side; and were fortified by a high wall without any ditch. Their number was 81; and they were occupied by guards from the neighbouring stations or garrisons.—The turrets were forts of 12 feet square, built so near each other that the voices of the sentinels could easily be heard from one to the other. Their exact number is not known, but it is supposed to have been 324. The number of troops appointed for the protection of this wall generally amounted to 10,000. For the convenience of passing from one part to another, two roads were constructed upon the southern side of the wall. These were formed of square stones. That nearest the wall was narrow; and following its direction in all its parts, served the troops and sentinels to pass in small parties between the castles and turrets. The other was much broader. It left the direction of the wall, and passing by the nearest way from one station to another, served for the passage of great bodies of troops. The Romans were always careful to form such roads in the provinces of their empire as should secure a speedy intercourse between the principal settlements and stations. Of these roads, England had many. One principal road ran from S. to N.; another ran from E. to W.

independence. As the former division increased, a new and more specific division became necessary, and the six following provinces were adopted :

- 1st. *Britannia Prima*, including the southern part of the island, to the mouth of the Thames on the one side, and that of the Severn on the other.
- 2d. *Britannia Secunda*, comprising modern Wales.
- 3d. *Flavia Casariensis*, comprehending the midland districts of England, from the Thames to the Humber on the east, and between the Severn and the Mersey on the west.
- 4th. *Maxima Casariensis*, extending from the Humber to the Tyne, and from the Mersey to the Solway Firth. Its northern boundary was at one period formed by the wall of Severus, and at another by that of Adrian, mentioned above.
- 5th. *Valentia*, comprising that part of Scotland south of the Clyde and the Forth.
- 6th. *Vespasiana*, a name applied to the region between the Forth and Loch Ness, where a few remains of Roman roads, &c. have been discovered.

To those regions beyond the reach of the Roman arms, the original appellation of *Britannia Barbara* would continue to be applied.

Arrival of the Saxons.] Disappointed of assistance from the Romans in resisting their northern invaders, the Britons, it is said, next applied for assistance to the Saxons—a people inhabiting the *Chersonesus Cimbrica*, or the Peninsula, bounded by the Baltic Sea on the N. and E., the Elbe on the S., and the German Ocean on the W. The Saxons were, at this time, famous for their bravery, and the boldness of their piratical expeditions. By gifts and promises the Britons invited the Saxons to undertake their defence. The Saxons, inured to warlike expeditions, willingly accepted the invitation. Their own country was not exceedingly fertile, and could scarcely support the number of inhabitants which it contained; they also seem, notwithstanding the terror which had been impressed on the Britons by the Scots and Picts, to have reckoned these tribes by no means formidable, for they despatched, in 449, only three ships, containing 1600 men, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, two brothers. Vortigern, at that time king of the Britons, is said to have received them with joy, and assigned them the isle of Thanet for a habitation. By their aid the foe was immediately defeated; but the Saxons, glad to settle in the fertile fields of a delightful country, in exchange for the bleak shores of the Baltic, invited over fresh reinforcements of their countrymen, and from the auxiliaries became the masters of the natives. The Britons saw their error when it was too late to correct it. A long and fierce contest ensued betwixt them and their new invaders; but the history of this period is utterly obscure. The traditions, for example, regarding Prince Arthur, evidently partake far more of the marvellous of romance than of sober history. We know this, however, that after a struggle, which had been protracted throughout 150 years, the Saxons remained masters of the country; and that in 585, the southern part of Britain, with the exception of Wales, was divided into seven kingdoms, well-known by the name of *the Heptarchy*, and governed only by Saxon princes. As this division forms a principal era in the ancient geography of the country, it may not be improper to lay before the reader the mode in which South Britain was at this time divided :

- 1st. KINGDOM OF KENT, founded by Hengist, in 457,] containing, Kent.
This kingdom ended in 823.
- 2d. SUSSEX, or South Saxons, founded by Ella, in 491,] Sussex—Surry.
Ended in 600.
- 3d. EAST ANGLES, founded by Uffa, 575,] Norfolk—Suffolk—Cam-
bridge—Isle of Ely. Ended in 793.
- 4th. WESSEX, or West Saxons, founded by Cerdic, 512,] Part of Corn-
wall—Devon—Dorset—Somerset—Wilts—Hants—Berks.
Swallowed up the rest, 827.
- 5th. NORTHUMBERLAND, founded by Ida, 547,] York—Lancaster—
Durham—Cumberland—Westmoreland—Northumberland—
Scotland to the Firth of Forth. Ended in 792.
- 6th. ESSEX, or East Saxons, founded by Erkenwin, 527,] Essex—Mid-
dlesex—Part of Hertford. Ended in 746.
- 7th. MERCA, founded by Crida, 565,] Gloucester—Hereford—Wor-
cester—Warwick—Leicester—Rutland—Northampton—Lin-
coln—Huntingdon—Bedford—Buckingham—Oxford—Staf-
ford—Derby—Salop—Nottingham—Chester—Part of Hert-
ford. Ended 827.

The history of the Anglo-Saxons, while the country continued to be divided into so many small and independent kingdoms, is not less confused than that of the period which immediately preceded it. The whole consists of a succession of murders, plots, and acts of tyranny, and superstition. Each prince was continually at war with almost all his neighbours; and each State was, in its turn, annexed to some of its more powerful rivals; until at length, in 927, Egbert, king of the West Saxons, by the exertion of much valour, and superior capacity, united in his own person the sovereignty of what had formerly formed seven independent kingdoms; and gave to the whole the name of England,—a name which it has ever since retained.

Egbert.] Egbert did not long enjoy in quiet his extensive dominions. The Danes, issuing from those regions which had formerly been possessed by the Saxons themselves, began in his time to harass by their inroads their more southern neighbours. Egbert attacked a large body of the invaders and repelled them; but they made their appearance again in a short time, and entering into an alliance with the Cornish Britons, threatened to prove very troublesome foes. Egbert, however, again met and defeated them; but while meditating some scheme for the permanent defence of his kingdom against those fierce pirates, he was suddenly removed by death in 838.

Ethelwolf, A. D. 838.] Egbert was succeeded by Ethelwolf, his son, —a prince remarkable only for his superstition. During his reign, the Danes continued almost annually to visit the coasts of England; and notwithstanding their being frequently repulsed, they never failed to return with increasing numbers and fury. Ethelwolf was ill-qualified for exercising vigorous measures of any kind. By giving part of his kingdom to his son Athelstan, he adopted precisely that mode of conduct which was most likely to occasion a civil war, had not the terror of the Danes prevented the Anglo-Saxons from entertaining any thoughts of internal insurrection. Ethelwolf was notoriously deficient in military capacity, but he possessed some qualities which were thought in these times sufficient to compensate for this and many other defects. He undertook a pilgrimage to Rome, where, by his liberality, he endeavoured to obtain the benediction of the church. He made an annual grant of 300 mancuses to the see of Rome, of which 100 were to support the lamps of St Peter, 100 to support those of St Paul, and 100 for the use of the pope. On his return, however, he found that his piety had not prevented the Danes from continuing their ravages, or his

second son Ethelbald from usurping his dominions, Athelstan having died during his absence. A civil war was prevented by Ethelwolf resigning the western part of the kingdom to his son. He next bestowed on the clergy a perpetual grant of tithes, which they had long demanded; and exempted them from all public burdens.

Ethelbald and Ethelbert, A.D. 857.] Ethelwolf survived this transaction only two years. He left his dominions to his sons, Ethelbald and Ethelbert; but these princes did not long survive him. They both died in 866, and were succeeded by their brother Ethered, whose reign was distinguished, like those of many of his predecessors, by numerous successful inroads of the Danes.

Ethered.] The English had depended so much on the beneficial effects of Ethelwolf's devotions, that they had neglected to adopt the ordinary means of defence; besides, the different kingdoms of the heptarchy, though subjected to one sovereign, were far from being pleased with their constrained union; and each of them connived at the partial successes of the Danes, hoping that through them they might ultimately recover their own independence. In the meantime the Danes penetrated into the interior, and Ethered fell in battle against them at Basing in 871.

Alfred the Great.] Alfred, who succeeded to the throne, was brother to Ethered, and fourth son of Ethelwolf. He had accompanied his father in his pilgrimage to Rome; but had applied himself with much success to all the branches of learning then known, without neglecting to exercise himself in such warlike occupations as might qualify him to take an active part against the enemies of his country. When Alfred ascended the throne he was only 22 years of age. His reign began with war. After much vicissitude of fortune he ultimately drove the Danes from the island, and took such measures as, for some time, prevented their return. He also rectified the errors of domestic government, and, in all things, consulted the true interests of his people. The character of Alfred is usually drawn in colours so brilliant, that the truth of the picture is liable to suspicion. He appears, indeed, to have been a good and great prince; but while the faults—which, in common with all men he must have possessed—have been entirely concealed, his virtues have, perhaps, been somewhat exaggerated. He died in 901, in the 30th year of his reign, leaving his kingdom to Edward, his second and eldest surviving son.

Edward the Elder.] Edward, denominated the elder, as being the first monarch of that name that sat upon the English throne, inherited his father's military genius; but the commencement of his reign was disturbed by the pretensions of Ethelwald, the son of Ethelbert, Alfred's elder brother. The usurper fell in an engagement; and Edward then directed his arms against those Danes, who, during the former reigns, had been permitted to settle in the island, but who were generally much inclined to promote disturbance. In his contests with them, as well as with those who continued to infest his territories from without, he was generally successful; but without being able to gain such a decisive advantage as prevented the future incursions of that restless people. Edward reigned 24 years.

Athelstan.] Athelstan, his natural son, who succeeded to the throne in 925, continued hostilities against the Danes; and, like his father, was generally successful when he could bring them to battle in the open field, but never was able effectually to suppress their power. Constantine, the Scottish king, having refused to give up a Danish prince who had taken shelter in his dominions, was attacked by Athelstan, and, according to the

English historians, was, on this occasion, forced to do homage for his kingdom. The Scottish historians, however, contradict this assertion. Neither of the parties indeed pretend to prove what they affirm; but as the prejudice which might give rise to such an assertion among the English, is well-known to have existed, the position of the Scots has the most powerful claim on our belief.

Edmund.] Edmund succeeded his brother Athelstan, in 941. He had reigned only five years, when he was murdered by a robber chief, whom he had exasperated at a public feast. Edmund was likewise succeeded by his brother Edred; his own children being too young to wield the sceptre of such a kingdom.

Edred.] Edred, a pious prince, made Dunstan, better known by the name of St Dunstan, his treasurer; and governed his kingdom entirely by that ambitious monk's counsels. His most important undertaking was the establishment of the celibacy of the clergy.

Edwy.] Edwy, who succeeded Edred, having, in consequence of a quarrel with Dunstan, excited the enmity of a powerful party of churchmen, had good reason to regret the influence which they had acquired under his predecessor. He had married Elgiva, his second or third cousin, contrary to the will of some of the dignitaries of the church, and contrary also to the precepts of the canon law; and such was the power of the monks, and their daring insolence, that they caused the queen to be taken from the palace by force, disfigured her face with hot irons, and sent her to Ireland into perpetual exile. The unhappy Elgiva being cured of her wounds, and recovering her beauty, seized an opportunity of escaping, and was hastening to rejoin her husband, when she was intercepted by the ecclesiastics, and cruelly put to death. Edwy now demanded from Dunstan an account of his conduct while treasurer; but Dunstan—who had expected that his sanctity would have screened him from all such demands—refused to comply, whereupon Edwy banished him from the kingdom. But the saint's influence induced one-half of Edwy's subjects to rebel, and to set up in opposition to him his own brother Edgar; and Dunstan having returned, fomented the rebellion, until the death of Edwy gave Edgar possession of the whole kingdom.

Edgar, A. D. 959.] Edgar, who was only 13 years of age when he received the crown, was directed in his government chiefly by Dunstan's advice. He was, consequently, much in favour with the monks: and though, in every respect, his life was uncommonly licentious, they allowed him to indulge unrebuked in every licentiousness, and at his death enrolled him among the number of the saints. Edgar, however, notwithstanding his vices, governed with vigour and prudence; and took such measures for the defence of his kingdom, that he enjoyed peace during the greater part of his reign. His reign is remarkable for the extirpation of wolves from England. In 957, he was succeeded by his son Edward.

Edward the Martyr.] This prince, generally known by the name of Edward the Martyr, was, even more than his father, under the guidance of the monks. During his reign, the regular clergy obtained a complete victory over the seculars,—two bodies between which the most violent contests had long subsisted. The victory was obtained chiefly by the abilities and knavery of Dunstan. The succession of Edward had always been opposed by Elfrida, Edgar's widow; who, to make way for her son, procured Edward's assassination, while he visited her at her own house. The

amiable life and tragical death of this prince procured for him the appellation of the Martyr.

Ethelred and Edmund.] Ethelred now succeeded without opposition ; but, as he was still a minor, the government was feebly conducted, and the Danes, who by degrees had obtained many settlements in the best part of the country, now began to discover that they might renew their depredations with impunity. The degenerate English nobles endeavoured, by giving the Danes money, to prevent their destructive ravages ; but the animosities between the English and the Danes who had settled among them, became daily more violent, and a general massacre of the latter is said to have been projected, though it is not probable that it ever was executed. Many cruelties, however, were exercised upon them ; but this circumstance, instead of intimidating the Danes, only stimulated them to more decisive attempts. Sweyn, king of Denmark, having invaded the kingdom with a powerful army, Ethelred was compelled to take refuge in Normandy. On the death of the Danish king, he returned, but found in Canute, the son and successor of Sweyn, an adversary no less formidable than he had experienced in his father. He left his kingdom, in 1016, to his son, Edmund, who, in the defence of his territories displayed uncommon valour ; but the power and superiority of the Danes were now established too firmly to be shaken. Notwithstanding every exertion, he was compelled to divide his kingdom with Canute ; and when he was assassinated, in 1017, the Danes succeeded to the sovereignty of the whole.

Canute.] Canute espoused the widow of Ethelred, that he might thus reconcile to himself the minds of his new subjects. He obtained the name of Great, not only on account of his warlike and civil qualifications—all of which seem to have been above the common rank—but from the extent of his dominions,—being master, not only of England, but of Denmark and Norway. He had no sooner taken possession of the throne than he sent the two sons of Edmund to Sweden. The Swedish king sent them to be educated at the court of Hungary, where Edwin the elder died without issue, and Edward married Agatha, the sister-in-law of the king, by whom he had Edgar Atheling and Margaret, afterwards queen of Scotland. Canute died in 1035, and was succeeded in England by his third son Harold, distinguished by the name of Harefoot.

Harold and Hardicanute.] The reign of Harold was short and inglorious ; that of his brother and successor, Hardicanute, was disgraced by tyranny. So violent, indeed, was his administration, that when he died, the English placed Edward, a prince of the Saxon race, upon the throne.

Edward the Confessor.] Edward the Confessor was called to the throne in 1042. His reign is remarkable for his practice of the civil rather than of the military virtues. He had resided long in Normandy, and had acquired a partiality for the Normans, which gave great offence to his English subjects. His superstition too was unbounded ; and by his complaisance towards the monks, he perhaps partly acquired his saintly fame. His reign, indeed, was long and prosperous : but this he owed rather to accident than to his own abilities. He compiled a system of laws which long commanded the admiration of his countrymen. He died in 1066 without issue. His virtues pleased the monks, and after his death they canonized him as a saint.

Harold.] Edward having no offspring, Harold, the son of earl Godwin, seized the crown, pretending that it had been bequeathed to him by the

late king. He found many rivals, but none so formidable as William of Normandy, who likewise pretended that he, by the will of Edward, had been appointed to succeed to the English throne. To support his pretensions, William made the most vigorous preparations; and to divert Harold's attention, he instigated the Danes to invade the northern counties, while he, with no less than 60,000 men, landed in the south. Harold met and vanquished the Danes, and then hastened southwards to repel the Normans. The two armies met at Hastings. They were nearly equal in numbers and courage; and fought with an obstinacy proportioned to the great object for which they contended. Harold and his two brothers fell, and the victory was William's. This great event took place on the 11th of October, 1066. The English might have done much to retrieve their affairs; but they were divided and dismayed. At first Edgar Atheling was proclaimed king; but the plans of the nobles were disconcerted by the rapid advances of the conqueror on the capital. The clergy were the first to bow before his consecrated standard; and on his approach, Edgar himself voluntarily resigned his crown into his hands, upon condition that he would govern according to the customs of the country.

William the Conqueror.] Having in reality conquered the kingdom, William might have claimed the government; but as he knew that none was powerful enough to dispute his pretensions, and was desirous of being accounted the lawful king, rather than the conqueror of England, he affected to receive the crown as a voluntary gift, and was consecrated in Westminster Abbey by the Archbishop of York. For some time he conducted the government with great moderation, preserving, with some alterations, the Saxon laws and Saxon institutions; but being obliged to reward those who had assisted him in prosecuting his enterprise, he bestowed the chief offices of government upon Normans, and divided among them a great part of the country. The English offended at a mode of conduct which they accounted partial, reluctantly submitted to his sway, and seized almost every opportunity of making insurrections. The latter part of William's life was embittered by domestic broils. Robert, his own son, rebelled against him; and though he was at last compelled to submit, he proved more troublesome than any other of William's enemies. Having reigned 21 years in England, he died in 1087. It was in this reign that the struggle commenced between liberty and prerogative, which continued with little interruption to the reign of Edward I. The introduction of the feudal law forms a prominent feature in the conqueror's reign.

William Rufus.] William, commonly known by the name of Rufus, though he was the conqueror's second son, by the artifices and intrigues of Lanfranc, an ecclesiastic, got possession of the English crown at his father's death. He successfully quelled a rebellion which, at the commencement of his reign, had been raised against him; but he afterwards treated his people with uncommon severity. Though Normandy was in possession of Robert, his elder brother, William attempted to make himself master of it also by force. Robert's character was composed of courage, generosity, and superstition; the last of these qualities enabled William to obtain what the first had prevented him from obtaining by violence. Robert was anxious to signalize himself among the crusaders; and to procure the money necessary for this purpose, he mortgaged his territories to William for 10,000 marks,—a sum which William extorted from his subjects. A quarrel with Anselm, a powerful ecclesiastic, distinguished the latter part of William's reign, and entailed on his character an imputation of impiety.

His love of money certainly seems to have been superior to his respect for the clergy,—a fault which they could not forgive. William was accidentally killed in 1100, by an arrow, while hunting in the New Forest.

Henry and Robert.] William left behind him no legitimate children; it was necessary, therefore, that one of his brothers should succeed him. The right of Robert, the elder, was preferable; but Henry, the younger, by securing his father's treasure, secured the inheritance also. Anxious to obtain the affections of the people, he granted them a charter of rights, which, in the time of John, was made the foundation of the great charter. This would in some measure have compensated for his usurpation, had he not, when confirmed on the throne, forgot his grant. Still farther to secure his crown, he espoused Matilda, the representative of the Anglo-Saxon line: thus uniting in his offspring the rights of the Saxons as well as of the Normans. Robert, whose disposition seems to have been somewhat indolent, arrived in England in 1101, and claimed the crown which of right belonged to him. But the actual possession of it gave Henry an insuperable advantage. His brother's treasure was sufficient to balance the contest; and to render himself still more safe, Henry courted the favour of the clergy. The primate Anselm effected a reconciliation before any blood had been shed in the quarrel; and Robert relinquished his pretensions to England, on condition that he should annually receive 3,000 merks. But Henry thought even these advantageous terms too hard; and seized his brother soon after, when he had come to England to vindicate the cause of some of his adherents whom Henry had deprived of their estates; and the unfortunate Norman prince was fain to purchase his liberty by relinquishing his pension. Even Robert's Norman subjects, either disgusted by his administration, or seduced by Henry's emissaries, were induced to revolt; and Henry seizing the opportunity, invaded Normandy, made himself master of the country, and took his brother prisoner. He is said to have kept him in cruel confinement during the remainder of his life. As soon as Henry thought his power was sufficiently confirmed, he convinced the clergy that his friendship for them was not so sincere as he had found it necessary to pretend. He entered into a dispute with Anselm the primate, and with the pope, concerning the right of granting investiture to the clergy. Henry supported his quarrel with firmness, and at length brought it to a more favourable issue than might have been expected. He died in Normandy in 1135, leaving behind him only one daughter, Matilda; his son William having been drowned off the coast of Normandy.

Stephen.] Henry's will declared Matilda his successor; but Stephen, who had married a daughter of William I. and who, by numerous grants of his sovereigns, had obtained great wealth, raised an army in Normandy, and having landed in England, declared himself king. He met with little resistance; and to secure himself on the throne which he had so violently seized, he granted the people many privileges. But Matilda, though she had been obliged to yield the crown to a more successful competitor, had not relinquished her claim. The earl of Gloucester, who favoured her cause, taking advantage of a quarrel which existed between Stephen and some of his principal clergy, landed with the queen in England, and adherents quickly resorted to her from every quarter. Stephen was not deficient in military conduct, and fought many battles with Matilda's forces, but was at length made prisoner. The queen was now once more set upon the throne; but having disgusted her nobles by some exertions of her power which they thought too violent, they revolted, and Stephen was taken from his prison

to be again proclaimed king. Many battles were fought betwixt the two parties. But Matilda was again obliged to leave the kingdom; and the death of Gloucester, her active general, seemed to deprive her of her last hopes of success. Henry Plantagenet, Matilda's son by her second marriage, now undertook the management of his own and his mother's quarrel. He invaded England; and Stephen was unexpectedly induced to enter into a negotiation, by which it was agreed that he should reign during his life, and that, upon his death, Henry should succeed him. Stephen's death made way for his rival in 1154.

Henry II.] Henry II. on his accession to the throne of England, was the most powerful, and proved himself the ablest sovereign in Europe. Besides his English and Norman dominions, he possessed, in right of his father, Anjou, Touraine, and Maine, in France; and in right of his wife, Guienne, Poitou, Saintonge, Auvergne, Perigord, Angoumois, and the Limousin. To these he soon after annexed Brittany and the county of Nantz; thus making himself master of above a third of the whole French monarchy. At home, such were the vigour and prudence of his administration, that the turbulent barons were kept in complete subjection, and the greater part of Henry's reign was passed in peace. The king found little difficulty in restraining the licentious powers of his barons; but when he attempted to abridge the exorbitant privileges of his clergy, he experienced a more resolute opposition, and all his vigour was necessary to support him in the arduous contest. The clergy had emancipated themselves from all civil restraint. They claimed exemption, not only from the usual taxes of the State, but also from its punishments; and Becket, now exalted to the primacy, supported them in their unreasonable pretensions. The assassination of this audacious priest, on the 29th of December, 1170, relieved Henry of a formidable obstacle in pursuing his plans of amelioration, but subjected him to the wrath of the Church, which was with difficulty appeased. In the meantime, Henry undertook the conquest of Ireland. He had received a grant of this country from pope Adrian III.; and he subdued it with such rapidity, that in a few months he received the submission of the whole island. On his return from this conquest, he made a pilgrimage to Becket's tomb; and having prostrated himself for a whole night upon the pavement before it, submitted to be scourged in this position by the hands of monks, and thus completed the triumph of the clergy. Having thus regained the favour of the Church, he was justly regarded as the most powerful potentate in Europe; but the latter end of his life was embittered by family divisions, encouraged and supported by the French monarch. In his foreign wars, Henry was generally successful; and having defeated and taken prisoner William, king of Scotland, at Alnwick, he compelled him, and his nobles and bishops, to do homage to him as lord-superior of Scotland, in the cathedral at York. Henry died near Saumur in France, on the 6th of July, 1189.

Richard I.] Richard, who, in 1189, succeeded to his father, inherited all the superstition and romantic bravery of the age. The frenzy of crusading had then invaded Europe, and the English monarch was impatient to distinguish himself in so conspicuous a scene. In order to equip and maintain an army for his romantic purpose, he exhausted the immense treasures which his father had left; and renounced the superiority which Henry had acquired over Scotland for 10,000 marks. Disregarding any evils which might ensue to his dominions from his absence, he hurried into the East, where he acquired the character of an intrepid soldier. Returning

homewards in disguise through Germany, he was basely made prisoner by Leopold, duke of Austria ; but the affection of his subjects raised the sum necessary for his ransom, and he returned to his kingdom, which during his absence had been a scene of confusion. The two prelates to whom he had delegated his power had disagreed ; and John, his brother, had aspired to the crown. His presence, for a time, restored matters to some appearance of order ; but the restlessness of his own disposition deprived him of all repose. He undertook an expedition against France ; but received a mortal wound by an arrow, while besieging one of his turbulent vassals in the castle of Chalus, near Limoges, in 1199. Richard's intrepidity and personal bravery, as is well known, acquired him the appellation of *Cœur de Lion*, or ' the Lion-heart.'

John.] That kingdom which John had so long sought to obtain by sinister methods, was at length his by succession ; but he soon demonstrated by his folly and imprudence how very unworthy he was of the dignity to which he had so eagerly aspired. His reign was turbulent and disastrous to himself, but ultimately fortunate for his people. His follies, his crimes, and his ill-concerted attacks upon the power of his nobles, had alienated from him the affections of almost all his subjects. In this situation, he undertook—what had hitherto been found too difficult for the most prudent kings, supported by the undivided influence of the civil authority—to wrest from the ecclesiastics several of their privileges. But he had neither prudence to form a good project, nor fortitude to carry through a bad one ; and at last his nobles formed the resolution of compelling him to accede to such terms as might be necessary to secure themselves and abridge the prerogatives of the crown. The clergy, instead of aiding him by their influence, entered warmly into the designs of the barons. John, after a feeble and irresolute resistance, was obliged to yield to his nobles, and at Runnymede—yet revered for the important event—he signed the *Magna Charta*, or ' Great Charter,' which continues to be accounted the foundation of British liberty. But though he had been compelled to sign the charter, he scrupled not to endeavour to avoid observing it. He raised an army for the purpose of reducing his barons to what he called more reasonable terms ; and they, on the other side, invited to their assistance the king of France, and offered the English crown to his son. A body of French troops were landed ; and the barons joined them with their forces. But, before the matter could be decided by arms, the king died in the 18th year of his reign.

Henry III.] The turbulent reign of John was succeeded by that of Henry III. which proved almost equally turbulent. Henry was but ten years of age when he was crowned ; but the abilities of the earl of Pembroke, who was declared regent, preserved the kingdom in tranquillity. Henry at length assumed the reins of government, and almost at the same instant showed himself incapable of managing them. His great object was to extort money from his subjects, not for the purpose of advancing national power, but to lavish on his pleasures, which were far from being the most refined. The nobles had recourse to arms ; and Henry was compelled to grant every thing required of him. A parliament being summoned for the purpose of redressing grievances, the charter of privileges for which the nation had so long contended was confirmed ; but the nobles having now acquired the sovereign power were unwilling to give it up. It was agreed that a committee should carry on the national business, during the intervals in which the parliament did not meet. At last prince Edward overthrew the authority of the earl

of Leicester, who had engrossed nearly the sole power, and restored his father, Henry, to that freedom of which he had long been deprived. But the king did not long enjoy the authority thus restored to him by his son. He died in 1272, in the 57th year of his reign.

Edward I.] Edward received information of his father's death in Sicily, while returning from a crusade, in which his love of military fame had engaged him. When he arrived in England, he succeeded to the crown without opposition; and restored to the civil administration that authority and regularity which, during the weak reign of his father, had been nearly annihilated. He even added to the laws a severity before unknown to them. Edward undertook and accomplished the conquest of Wales, which since that period has given a title to the king of England's eldest son. The Welsh were the only remains of the ancient Britons that had preserved amongst their mountain-fastnesses the laws and customs of their ancestors uncontaminated by foreign admixture. Bearing an hereditary enmity towards the Saxon English, they often committed many inroads on them, and had been extensively engaged in the rebellion of Leicester. Llewellyn, prince of Wales, still carried on a secret correspondence with that faction, and had even paid his addresses to Leicester's daughter. These circumstances furnished Edward with a pretext for war. The Welsh made a gallant but vain resistance. Llewellyn was surprised and killed, and his brother David ignominiously executed as a traitor. The Welsh nobility immediately submitted, and the principality received the laws of England. But when Edward attempted to reduce Scotland to his sway, he was baffled in the attempt. Edward died at Carlisle, on the 7th of July, 1307, while on the eve of again invading Scotland with an immense army.

Edward II.] The whole of the reign of Edward II. was unfortunate to himself and calamitous to his kingdom. His father's last and most earnest request of him was to prosecute the war with Scotland, and never to desist till he had annexed that kingdom to his English dominions; but Edward's disposition and capacity were unlike those of his father. The war with Scotland was carried on, but the English were almost constantly unfortunate; and at length they received a defeat from Robert Bruce, at Bannockburn, which ensured the independence of Scotland. His weak mind too was incapable of regulating the lawless conduct of his own barons; frequent quarrels led the way to civil wars, and his wife—a woman of a bold, intriguing, and somewhat libertine disposition—joined in the confederacy against him, and after having fled to France with her paramour Mortimer, returned and invaded England, and was joined by the discontented in every quarter. The king soon found himself compelled to submit to such terms as the rebels pleased to dictate. He was deposed; and his son, yet a minor, was declared his successor; the queen, during the minority, being appointed regent. The king, himself, was for some time detained in prison, and at last was murdered under circumstances of the most barbarous cruelty.

Edward III.] The regency of the queen was, in fact, the reign of Mortimer. But on the young prince's accession he soon showed a disposition entirely different from that of his father. He commenced his reign with a vigorous and just exertion of power. Having seized Mortimer and his royal paramour in the castle of Nottingham, the former was condemned to death; the latter was confined during life in the castle of Risinga. He next undertook the invasion of France, but returned unsuccessful, and gave vent to his discontent by oppressing his subjects. The known vigour of

Edward's character prevented those disturbances which might otherwise have been the consequence of his measures ; and a successful war, carried on at the same time against France and Scotland, allayed those murmurs which his tyranny might otherwise have occasioned. In the former country, the king, and his son, generally known by the name of the Black Prince, gained the character of accomplished warriors. The battles of Cressy and Poitiers, fought with immense disparity of numbers, ended in the most glorious and complete victories which English history has recorded. The Black Prince did not long survive these important victories ; he died in 1376. His father died in 1377.^a

Richard II.] Richard II., the son of the Black Prince, ascended the throne of his grandfather, when only 11 years of age. The administration of the government had been in a great measure entrusted by Edward, during his old age, to his second son, the Duke of Lancaster, and was still retained by that prince. Richard, while yet young, was immoderate in his pleasures and expenses ; and the parliament, in order to relieve his exigencies, had recourse to a poll-tax,—a most unpopular measure, which led to the celebrated insurrection of the populace, headed by Wat Tyler.—Richard, after a career of kingly folly and imbecility, was deposed by his own parliament, and the Duke of Lancaster raised to the throne, in 1399, by the title of Henry IV.

Henry IV.] The manner in which Henry acquired the crown, rendered his reign, as might be expected, extremely turbulent, and laid the foundation of the bloody contest between the houses of York and Lancaster. Such, however, was the vigour of his administration, and the promptitude of his measures, that every insurrection was quelled, and the efforts of those who endeavoured to deprive him of power baffled. The most formidable rebellion excited during his reign, was conducted by the earl of Northumberland. The earl, having made a treaty with the Scots and Welsh, raised a considerable body of forces ; but being prevented by sickness, from marching at their head, he gave the command of them to his son, Percy, generally known by the name of Hotspur. The impetuosity of the young general prompted him to engage the king's forces, which had marched to oppose him, before he was joined by his Welsh allies. In the conflict young Percy was slain ; his troops were routed ; and the rebels compelled to yield to the king's mercy. During the reign of Henry IV. the doctrines of Wickliffe—almost the same with those afterwards maintained by the reformers—made considerable progress in the island ; and the clergy, by their burning of heretics, accelerated the progress of those opinions which they wished to extirpate. In 1413 Henry left his crown to his son Henry V.

Henry V.] The earlier years of the prince who now ascended the throne had been dishonourably distinguished by riot and dissipation ; but the sceptre had no sooner passed into his hands, than he transferred his

^a It was at the close of the reign of Edward III. that the legislative proceedings were first given in the English language, which had always prevailed as the language of the body of the people, though the French had been generally used by those of higher condition. It is said in the report of the Lords' committee, on the privilege of peers, that the prelates, dukes, earls, barons, and all the commons, had at length shown the king the mischiefs arising from the laws, customs, and statutes of the realm not being known to them, "because they were impleaded, shown, and judged in the French language," which was little known in the kingdom ; and the king with their consent willed, that all proceedings should henceforth be in the English language. The French language still continued in use in the rolls of parliament, notwithstanding this declaration.

activity to pursue more honourable to himself and more useful to his people. The companions of his former disorders were banished from his presence; the laws were severely executed; and greater regularity introduced into every department of government; in other respects his administration was mild. Taking advantage of the disorder in which the French nation was involved, and prompted by the enmity which had long subsisted between the kingdoms, Henry, in 1415, invaded France, at the head of 30,000 men. The disjointed councils of the French rendered their country an easy prey; and the celebrated victory of Agincourt having dissipated the small portion of courage and unanimity which had formerly existed, a peace was concluded on terms which rendered the English king no less powerful in France than in his native dominions. Henry espoused Katherine, the French king's daughter; and it was declared that his son by her—if such issue existed—should be the heir of both kingdoms.—Henry died in 1422, after a reign of only 10 years. His life and his reign were short; but the memory of few monarchs has descended to posterity with more unqualified claims on our respect and admiration.

Henry VI.] England, during the reign of Henry VI. was subjected, in the first place, to all the confusion incident to a long minority, and afterwards to all the misery of a civil war. Henry, of a weakly body, and possessed of a mind still more weakly, allowed himself to be entirely managed by those by whom he was surrounded. Margaret of Anjou, to whom he was married, was a woman of uncommon capacity, but her intentions were not always innocent; and she more frequently involved the kingdom in confusion, than used her influence for quelling such disturbances as were unavoidable. During this reign, disgraced by weakness of administration, and the violent perversion of justice, the French began gradually to recover from the abject state into which they had fallen during the reign of Henry V. The duke of Bedford endeavoured to support the English interest in France, but his forces were ill-supported; and the celebrated Maid of Orleans, having by a happy imposture inspired her countrymen with new energies, chased the terrified English from the French territories. The loss of France was not in itself, perhaps, so great a misfortune as was at that time imagined; the civil commotions which immediately followed, were much more destructive of national prosperity. Richard, duke of York, in 1450, began to advance pretensions to the throne which had been so long usurped by the house of Lancaster; and the nation was immediately divided into two parties. Amid the fierce contentions of the rival factions, the king's imbecility would have proved incapable of any resistance; but the activity of his queen frequently recalled his affairs from a situation seemingly desperate. The king himself had been made prisoner; and the duke of York, without the appellation of sovereign, conducted the government for some time. But, by the exertions of the queen, the duke was compelled to save himself by flight, and the king regained his liberty. Warwick, who had joined the York party, now defeated the royal forces; the king became once more a prisoner; and the title of the duke of York to the crown was openly asserted, when matters were at length compromised by a treaty, by which it was agreed that Henry should reign during his life, and that he should be succeeded by the duke of York, to the exclusion of the prince of Wales. The queen having prevailed on the northern barons to join her with their troops, once more nearly retrieved the royal cause. She encountered the adherents of York; defeated their army;

and put to death the duke. But Edward, the duke of York's son, put himself at the head of the remains of his father's army, and having encountered the royal army under the command of the earl of Pembroke, obtained a complete victory, and, advancing rapidly to London, was, in 1461, proclaimed king.

Edward IV.] Edward IV. had now obtained the crown, but his possession of it was far from being secure. The queen had still an army of 60,000 men, and she rapidly advanced to dispute his possession of the throne. Edward met her with an army amounting to 40,000; and the adherents of the house of York gained a complete victory. Edward, however, soon learned that the same power which raised him to a throne could tear him from it. Warwick, whom Edward had disgusted by espousing Elizabeth Woodville while the earl was successfully employed in negotiating a marriage with the princess of Savoy, determined to depose the monarch whom he had been so anxious to elevate. Disappointed in their first attempts, Warwick and his associates left the kingdom; but soon afterwards returned to England. A few days after Warwick had landed, he found himself at the head of 60,000 men; and Edward in his turn was now compelled to fly. He retired to Holland, and Warwick placed Henry VI. upon that throne from which he had formerly driven him. Edward soon returned, and Warwick hurried to oppose him. But his army was vanquished, and he himself fell in the battle. The imbecile Henry was again remitted to the tower, and his queen was confined to the same place. Henry soon after died, or, according to some, was murdered by the duke of Gloucester; and Margaret was ransomed by the French king, and afterwards closed her existence in France. Edward, now without a rival, dedicated the remainder of his life to the punishment of those who had incurred his resentment, or excited his jealousy. He died in 1482.

Edward V.] His son, who was proclaimed king by the name of Edward V. being then but 13 years of age, the regency was committed to the duke of Gloucester, with the title of protector. Gloucester immediately formed a design of raising himself to the throne; and as the depravity of his mind seemed well-reflected in the deformity of his body, he scrupled at no crime which could advance his projects. Having made himself master of the persons of the king, and of his brother, the duke of York, at that time 9 years of age, he placed them in the tower, under pretence of securing them from danger. Lord Hastings, and several other noblemen, whose fidelity to the young king could not be overcome, were put to death; and Gloucester, after practising the lowest arts, stepped into the throne, by the name of Richard III., in obedience, as he pretended to the desire of the nation. The young king and his brother fell early victims to that dread and anxiety by which an usurper is incessantly haunted.

Richard III.] Having thus, as he imagined, secured his power, Richard gave way to the cruelty which was natural to him. His title to the crown was confirmed by parliament; and to render his right still more unexceptionable, he formed the resolution of poisoning his wife, Anne, second daughter of the earl of Warwick, and of espousing Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV. But while Richard was thus employed in securing that crown which had been gained by so many crimes, Henry, earl of Richmond, the only surviving branch of the family of Lancaster, landed in Wales. The king immediately marched against the invader, and met him at Bosworth, near Leicester, when a fierce battle ensued. Numbers fell on both sides; but Richard's death at length determined the contest. An ornamental

crown which Richard had worn in battle having been found in the field, was placed upon the head of Richmond, who was immediately proclaimed king by the name of Henry VII. He was crowned in 1485; and in the following year was married to Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. and thus united the long contending factions of York and Lancaster.

Henry VII. 1485.] Henry's administration was vigilant and severe. The malcontents of the house of York were still numerous, and could only be put down by decided measures. Even the birth of a son, who united in his person all the claims of York and Lancaster, did not allay the violence of the opposing factions. Henry's prepossessions against the Yorkists were inveterate; his temper led him rather to terrify them into obedience by severity than to reconcile them to his sway by a mild demeanour. Report likewise had gone abroad that Richard, duke of York, second son of Edward IV. had saved himself from the cruelty of his uncle, Richard, and was concealed somewhere in England. In this state of affairs, one Richard Simon, a priest, conceived the scheme of setting up a pretender to the crown, in the person of a youth called Lambert Simnel, whom he instructed to personate the son of Edward. Simon carried his pupil to Ireland, where the pretender was very favourably received by all ranks, and proclaimed king of Ireland. An army from Ireland next proceeded to the invasion of England; and having landed in Lancashire, met the king's forces at Stoke, near Newark in Nottingham, on the 6th of June, 1497. An obstinate engagement ensued, in which the rebels were completely defeated. Most of their leaders perished in the field; Simnel himself was taken prisoner, but was regarded as too contemptible an object for Henry's resentment. A new impostor soon appeared in the person of Perkin Osbec, or Warbeck, the son of a Flemish Jew, who, under the name of Richard Plantagenet, collected a number of partisans in Ireland, and was befriended by many of the English nobility, and by James IV. of Scotland. After a variety of unsuccessful adventures, Perkin was taken prisoner, and finally executed, along with the young earl of Warwick, in 1499. Henry having now securely established his authority, set about fortifying it by matrimonial alliances. The princess Margaret, his eldest daughter, was contracted to James IV. of Scotland; and Arthur, prince of Wales, to the princess Catherine, third daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. Henry died on the 22d of April, 1509. In political respects, he was the most useful prince, next to king Alfred, that had yet filled the throne of England. His efforts were uniformly directed to promote a spirit of industry, and in extending the benefits of commerce among his subjects. He expended £14,000—a large sum in his days—in building one ship, which was called 'the Great Harry,' and which may be considered, in fact, as the beginning of the English navy: since the government, before this period, had no other mode of raising a fleet than by hiring or pressing the vessels of merchants.

Henry VIII.] Henry VIII. ascended the throne, when he was about 18 years of age, under very auspicious circumstances. One of the first matters which engaged the attention of his council, was his marriage to his brother's widow, Catherine, the infanta of Spain. Henry himself was averse to the match, and the archbishop of Canterbury opposed it as incestuous, but the majority of the council urged it for political reasons. Seduced by the artifices of pope Julius II. and the king of Spain, Henry entered into a league with them against Louis XII. of France, and a war ensued, in which he gained little either of reputation or profit. His attack on France involved him in a war with James IV. of Scotland; but the victory of

Flodden-field poorly compensated for the death of his sister's husband, who might have proved one of his best allies. Wolsey, at once archbishop of York, bishop of Durham, a cardinal, pope's legate, lord-chancellor of England, prime minister of State, and master of Henry's thoughts and affections, long directed the affairs of England during Henry's reign. A second war with France and Scotland having exhausted Henry's treasures, Wolsey endangered both his own and his master's power by attempting to raise money on the king's authority alone. Foiled in this object, Henry's restless mind was next occupied with the design of procuring a divorce from his wife, whom he had never loved. An application was made to the pope with this intent in 1527. The latter, through his connexions with Catherine's relations on the continent, finding himself involved in perplexity, endeavoured to evade the determination, by giving an ambiguous answer to lengthen out the negotiation; but the imperious passions of Henry could submit to no delay, and to preserve that influence in England which the pontiff was apprehensive he might entirely lose, a legate was ultimately sent to examine the cause. Catherine refused to acknowledge the authority of a court in which it was evident she was to receive little justice, and the business was conducted in her absence; but after it seemed to be nearly concluded, the legate first prorogued the court, and afterwards transferred the cause to Rome. In this mode of proceeding the king of course could not acquiesce; and Wolsey, by endeavouring to maintain his ground both with the pope and with the king, was disgraced by both parties. The great seal was taken from him, and his numerous vexations soon terminated his existence. Henry now consulted the universities of Europe, and all the learned men whose judgment he imagined to be of consequence in the affair, concerning his marriage, and all having concurred in declaring it illegal, Henry thought that he might now venture, independent of the pope's permission, to dissolve a contract with which he was so much disgusted. Accordingly, having compelled the clergy to acknowledge his power in spiritual matters to be in his own dominions supreme, he immediately annulled his marriage with Catherine; and publicly announced Anne Boleyn, one of the queen's maids of honour—whom he had already privately married—as his wife, by carrying her in a magnificent procession through the streets of London. The pope immediately issued a sentence, declaring the nullity of this second marriage, and requiring Henry, on pain of excommunication, to restore Catherine to her place as his only lawful wife. But parliament ratified the king's marriage with Anne Boleyn, and declared the king to be the only supreme head of the church of England. The bishops also took out new commissions from the crown: thus acknowledging all their spiritual and episcopal authority to be derived ultimately from the civil magistrate. Henry had other reasons for denying the pope's spiritual authority in England. The churches and monasteries had, during the lapse of several superstitious ages, accumulated immense wealth; and the king wished to enrich himself with the spoils of the ecclesiastics. He could not, however, with honour, deviate entirely from the received doctrines of the Roman church. He had already written a book in opposition to the reformed creed, and in defence of the catholic faith. He held, therefore, a middle course: he condemned all submission to the pope as the head of the Church, with several of the less important articles of the Roman faith; but, at the same time, he condemned the doctrines of the reformers. Nor was his caprice more conspicuous in his articles of faith than in his matrimonial conduct. Anne Boleyn, for some time, filled the place of

Catherine; but the king, at length, became not less disgusted at her than at her predecessor. Anne too had many enemies, who, observing the king's temper, gladly accused her of conjugal infidelity. Henry eagerly seized the accusation; and Anne was tried, condemned, and executed. The king had formed a new attachment for Jane Seymour, another maid of honour; and with a precipitancy which indicated the cause of the prosecution of his wife, he married Seymour the day following the execution of Boleyn. Jane Seymour having died in childbed, Henry's next spouse was Anne of Cleves, of whose picture he had been enamoured. By mutual consent, the contract was soon dissolved; and Henry espoused Catherine Howard, niece of the duke of Norfolk. This event was regarded by the catholics as highly favourable to their party; but Henry spared neither protestant nor catholic who offended him; and Catherine shared the fate of Anne Boleyn, with somewhat more of justice, in 1542. After the death of James V. of Scotland, Henry projected the scheme of uniting the two kingdoms, by marrying his son Edward to the heiress of the Scotch crown. This measure, however, was thwarted by cardinal Beaton and the regent Hamilton, and a war with France and Scotland ensued with various success. Among the objects which occupied Henry's attention in the latter part of his life, was a plan for promoting religious uniformity.

Edward VI.] Henry's son, who succeeded him in 1547, by the name of Edward VI. was but 9 years of age at the time of his accession. His short reign—or rather the reign of the earl of Hertford, afterwards duke of Somerset, who was appointed regent—was distinguished chiefly by the success which attended the measures of the reformers. Edward, who was an amiable and pious prince, died in 1553.

The intrigues of Dudley, duke of Northumberland, procured the elevation of Lady Jane Grey to the throne. Her reign, if it could be called such, lasted only a few days. Lady Jane and her husband were sent to the tower, on the proclamation of Mary, daughter of Henry VIII.; and, notwithstanding their conduct had been altogether involuntary, they were both afterwards executed.

Mary.] Mary was a bigoted Catholic, and her intolerant mandates were zealously executed by Bonner, a zealot no less bigoted than herself. Political motives had induced Philip of Spain to accept of Mary as his spouse; but, notwithstanding her affection for him, she could never prevail on her subjects to allow him any share of power. Philip bore the affront very ill; and vexation on this account, added to other maladies, hastened Mary's end. She died in 1558.

Elizabeth.] Elizabeth, another daughter of Henry's by Anne Boleyn, succeeded to her sister Mary; and, by the vigour and prudence of her administration, compensated for the feeble reigns of her two predecessors. Elizabeth, herself attached to the Protestant faith, resolved to establish it in England, and found little difficulty in the undertaking, as Mary's persecutions had rendered the Catholic profession extremely odious. Having concluded a peace with France, Elizabeth had leisure to take part in the affairs of Scotland, which, at that time, were involved in confusion. Pope Paul had denied her legitimacy and right to the crown of England, and asserted that of Mary Queen of Scots. To disable Mary from asserting this dangerous claim was Elizabeth's policy, and she artfully effected her purpose, by encouraging, and supporting in their turns, the heads of the different factions. She thus secured herself from the designs of a troublesome neighbour, and prevented any intention which the French might

entertain of invading her from the Scottish frontier. Her activity in Scottish affairs was augmented by her rivalry and secret hatred of Mary ; and never rested until her ill-fated rival was brought to the block.— Philip of Spain, actuated by that bigotry which so strongly marked his character, and incited by policy as well as by personal animosity, resolved to attack Elizabeth in her own dominions, and to annihilate the heretical kingdom. With this view, he fitted out a fleet more powerful than any which Europe had yet seen, and manned it with his most experienced sailors, and his bravest soldiers. It arrived on the English coast ; but instead of finding an easy prey, was fiercely attacked by Elizabeth's fleet, which, though not of equal strength, was more manageable. The English vessels were under the command of officers of approved valour and skill ; and by seizing every favourable opportunity, they gained many advantages over the Spaniards. Directed with little knowledge, and ill-provided for a long voyage, the Spaniards were soon in want of every necessary. A storm, which overtook them, finished that destruction which the English fleet had commenced. The Spanish fleet attempted to sail homewards by the northern part of the island ; but many of them were wrecked on the coasts of Scotland ; and of the whole invincible armada, few ships returned safe to Spain. At last worn out with the cares of state, and oppressed by griefs of a more private kind, Elizabeth sank under their combined pressure. She expired in 1603, and was succeeded by James VI. of Scotland, now nearest heir to the crown, as the great-grandson of Henry the Seventh's daughter. Elizabeth, it has been justly remarked, was a fit representative of the whole Tudor family. " To the frugality and caution of the founder of their family, she united her father's capricious temperament and courage, with more than her brother's learning, and not a great deal less than her sister's intolerance of religious innovations. Her character was colossal—and designed for that triumphal pillar upon which she was early placed by a nation that she enlightened, invigorated, and saved. Taken down from that elevation, for the purpose of being subjected to a moral microscope, formed on the more correct principles of modern times, and adjusted almost to the circumstances and considerations of private life, she has lately undergone a minute and unsparing criticism, which might appease the spirit of her injured rival, and satiate the not altogether undeserved vindictiveness of Rome. There were infirmities of heart and purpose about her, (often in little things, and once or twice in great ones), which it must have required, in an age when sovereigns lived in the familiar presence of their subjects, all her dazzling qualities to throw into the shade. It was undoubtedly the comparison with the Stuarts which canonized her with the next generation. But there is abundant contemporary evidence that, without her crown, she would have been still the most extraordinary person, whether for capacity or resolution, in her renowned court. It was no compliment of Burleigh's, who always spoke of her as the wisest woman he had ever known."

James I.] James was far from being destitute of natural abilities ; but it was not till he ascended the English throne that his disposition and character could be appreciated. While he swayed the Scottish sceptre, he appeared sober, learned, and devout. When he ascended the throne of England, the Papists expected toleration from a prince born of Roman Catholic parents, baptized with the rites and ceremonies of the church of Rome, and whose royal mother might be looked upon as a martyr in their

cause. The Puritans, on the other hand, expected that a monarch reared in the profession of Presbyterian principles would cast the balance in their favour. The bishops of the Episcopalian church awaited his accession with fear and trembling. But James soon disappointed alike the fears of one party and the hopes and expectations of others. Dissimulation was a leading feature of his character, and a desire of unlimited power and authority the reigning passion of his heart. Instead of moderating, he increased the power of the Episcopal hierarchy; and the Catholics, provoked at the disappointment of their expectations of a toleration, at least, if not an establishment, formed a plot for cutting off, not only the king and his ministers, but the whole of his parliament. This conspiracy, well-known by the name of *the Gunpowder Plot*, was happily prevented; and the principal conspirators suffered that punishment which they merited. It was James's misfortune that he had imbibed exalted notions of the royal prerogative; and, without the abilities, wished to govern by the arbitrary maxims of Queen Elizabeth. The nation, on the other hand, in consequence of the progress of political and religious knowledge, and the increasing diffusion of commercial wealth and prosperity throughout the community, were united for liberty; and pursued it under a growing consciousness of their ability to defend it. In such circumstances, James's whole reign was a continued contest between the prerogative of the crown, and the rights of the people. The parliament refused to give supplies to a prince who was always reminding them of his prerogative; and who, at the same time, was destitute of vigour to enforce his pretensions. Accustomed as James had been, while he swayed the Scottish sceptre, to support the splendours of regal dignity upon a very slender revenue, it was reasonable to expect, that when he ascended the English throne, frugality would still have been a marked feature of his conduct; but his behaviour disappointed these expectations. Careful, from a constitutional timidity of character, to avoid wars, his system was entirely pacific: while his profusion was such that it uniformly exceeded his income,—for he kept up three courts, one for himself, one for his queen, and a third for his son. The expense of his daughter's marriage to the Elector Palatine, cost, including her portion, £93,278; and not content with bestowing upon his favourites the most lucrative offices of the State, and considerable grants from the royal domains, he lavished upon them large sums of money. In the first 14 years of his reign, £424,467 were thus expended. He likewise bestowed upon his eldest son, Henry, prince of Wales, a clear revenue of £51,000—a sum equivalent, in value, to £150,000 of our modern money. His wants, occasioned by his profusion, kept him engaged in constant disputes with his parliament, and compelled him to resort to monopolies, loans, benevolences, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients, he sold the titles of baron, viscount, and earl, at the rates of from £10,000 to £20,000. In his reign the hereditary title of baronet first originated. At the same time, it must be allowed that James sincerely desired to make the union of the two kingdoms as complete as possible; and that in effecting this great object, he was only thwarted by the operations of national animosities and prejudices not yet sufficiently extinguished. His old subjects thought that too much could not be done for kith and kin; and his new ones looked with a jealous eye on the swarms of northern locusts which came to bask in their king's favour at the English court. James's great ambition was to shine as a polemic; to this he sacrificed the dignities of a prince and the happiness

of a people. In a word, though the nation undoubtedly prospered in wealth and commerce, yet his reign was inglorious, and he died despised by the majority of his subjects, in 1625, after a reign of 22 years over England, without having performed one great or glorious deed to exalt his own character, or that of the kingdom of which he was sovereign.

Charles I.] His son and successor Charles inherited the same exalted notions of royal prerogative, united to a stiff and perverse temper, and a reserved and distant behaviour which he had acquired while in Spain. His unhappy marriage with a Popish princess,—his servile fondness for his queen,—and his resolute adherence to arbitrary maxims, and illegal methods of raising money,—gradually widened the breach between him and his subjects. His government grew more unpopular daily, and the commons would at last vote him no supplies without redress of grievances. In this state of things Charles displayed the most infatuated conduct;—dissolving parliaments; imprisoning members; and raising prosecutions in the Star Chamber against the most popular characters in the kingdom. He intrusted the keeping of his conscience entirely to Laud, a bigot in Church and State, who, in conjunction with Wentworth, earl of Strafford, entangled him in a most expensive and disastrous contest with his Scottish subjects, and afterwards with his parliament. In the great struggle for civil and religious freedom which now took place, Hampden and Pym headed the patriots; and upon the death of these two illustrious men in 1643, Vane, St John, and Cromwell became the leaders of the patriotic party. The success at first was various; but the king was destitute of money to pay his troops, whilst the parliament had at their disposal the whole wealth of the nation. Charles lost his only effective counsellor when he abandoned Strafford, and was at last involved in such distress, that he fled for protection to the Scottish army; which, in conjunction with the parliament, maintained the struggle against arbitrary power. He now endeavoured, by various machinations, to sow dissension between the Scottish leaders and the English parliament, and to engage the former in his interest; but entirely failed in the attempt. The Scots would not involve themselves in a war for the sake of a prince who had already forfeited all their confidence; and, therefore, after assurances of protection to the royal person, they delivered him up to the parliamentary commissioners. The more moderate, and perhaps the more upright part of the parliament, and of the nation, were of opinion, that now the constitution ought to be rectified, and the limits between the prerogatives of the king and the privileges of the people accurately determined; that after such salutary regulations, the king ought to be restored to his throne, and to that share of power which was consistent with the happiness of his subjects; and that all past transactions ought to be buried in oblivion. But the voice of moderation and wisdom is seldom heard amid the din of national commotions. The parliamentary army had reduced the king to subjection; and under Cromwell's guidance, loudly declared for a commonwealth and for the trial of the king, the invader of his people's rights. Charles was accordingly tried, condemned, and beheaded, in 1648.

The Commonwealth.] Cromwell's power in the army, and, consequently, in the nation, was now supreme. But with the power of a king, he was content with the name of a protector. During the whole of his administration, Cromwell retained that vigour and decision which had been so successful in his usurpation of power; and distinguished himself by large and liberal views of civil and ecclesiastical polity. The prompt-

titude of his measures, and the terror of his fleets and armies, rendered him no less respected abroad than he was despotic at home. After a short rule, during which he endured all the miseries of grandeur, and the anxieties of distrust, he died in 1658. His son Richard was now called to assume the authority of the protector; but Richard's temper was totally unlike that of his father. He preferred the calm of private life to the turbulence of power and the cares of ambition; and the different parties began to introduce that anarchy by which the nation had formerly been convulsed. The restoration of the old constitution, and of the former race of monarchs, was the popular desire. Taking advantage, therefore, of this prevalent disposition, General Monk, who had commanded under Cromwell, and who was now at the head of a considerable force, formed the resolution of restoring Charles, the son of Charles I., to his father's throne. Monk was compelled at first, to temporize, lest the republicans should suspect his designs; but such was the caution with which he took his measures, and such the general disposition of the nation, that in 1660, Charles was recalled and placed on the throne, under the name of Charles II. Unfortunately, in the enthusiasm of loyalty, the king was restored to the throne without any restraint being put upon his authority,—or without any attempt being made to define the prerogatives of the crown and the privileges of the people,—measures which prudence certainly should have suggested, and which might have tended to prevent much subsequent confusion and calamity.

Charles II.] Charles II. seems to have profited little by his father's misfortunes. Greatly more attached to the pleasures of life, than anxious to discharge the duties of his high office, he appears to have considered sovereignty chiefly as an acquisition by which he could with more ease and impunity indulge himself in all the licentiousness of profligacy. Had the house of commons been sufficiently liberal in their grants, and not very scrupulous in demanding an account of the manner in which their supplies were expended, Charles would, perhaps, have permitted them to conduct the affairs of the nation in the way most agreeable to themselves. But the commons were justly parsimonious; and the king, in order to obtain money, began to adopt the most illegal measures. To the king's incessant demand for supplies the parliament answered by remonstrances regarding his conduct. At this crisis, the duke of York, brother to the king, and apparent heir to the crown, openly declared himself a Roman Catholic, a circumstance than which nothing could more excite the national displeasure. The commons persisting in withholding supplies, the king became daily more needy, more peevish, and less scrupulous in his conduct; at length, perceiving that he was to meet with nothing from his parliament except reproaches, he rashly dismissed it, and from that moment, managed the reins of government in a manner altogether arbitrary. The English, and indeed every nation of Europe, at this time, seem to have been anxious to humble the growing power of France; but in this respect the opinion of Charles was different from that of his people. The French monarch supplied Charles with money, and thus engaged him in hostilities with Holland, whose naval power was truly formidable. Many engagements were fought with uncommon obstinacy and consummate skill; and, though the Dutch, seizing a favourable opportunity, sailed up the Thames, and insulted their enemy in their own harbours, the naval strength of the English was gradually acquiring irresistible superiority.

James II.] Charles died in 1684; and, as he left behind him no law-

ful issue, his brother, the duke of York, succeeded to the throne, under the name of James II. During the life of Charles, James had always asserted the doctrine of passive obedience; and, as if to render himself more odious, he now exerted that power which he pretended to be unlimited, in the mad attempt to re-establish in his dominions the Catholic faith. His design was opposed with a vigour which ought to have convinced him that it was impracticable; but opposition served only to exasperate his narrow mind, and to render him more obstinate. Matters soon came to such a situation, that it was evident that the monarch intended to establish Popery at the risk of his own ruin. In this extremity the nation turned their eyes to William, prince of Orange, celebrated for his military capacity and his political virtues. Though this prince was nephew, as well as son-in-law, to James, he eagerly accepted an invitation to come over to England for the purpose of relieving the people from their apprehensions of Popery. No sooner had William landed, than James was deserted by almost all his remaining adherents; and, forgetting that bravery which he had exhibited when duke of York, in his engagements with the Dutch, he quitted his kingdom and fled to France.^a

The Revolution. King William.] The throne was now declared vacant; and, after some debates, the prince of Orange, and his wife, the princess Mary, were called to be the king and queen of England. The people, convinced by the transactions of their preceding monarchs, that the surest way of securing the peace of the nation was to define the power of the prince and the privileges of his subjects, now adopted a mode of conduct which ought to have been followed at the restoration: they framed the bill of rights, which fixed the English government in that state of freedom and moderation which has since so happily characterized it. This important revolution was effected in 1688. But although it had been brought about with much appearance of unanimity, and had secured to the nation inestimable privileges, the government of William was not universally popular, nor had James lost all his friends. In Ireland, as a catholic country, the unfortunate monarch had many adherents; and James having appeared among them in person, was soon at the head of an army; but

^a "The late king of Piedmont, Victor Emanuel, was the eldest descendant in a right line, of Charles I. by Anne Maria of Orleans, Queen of Sardinia. To him the Cardinal of York transmitted, at his death, in his will, not only his right to the crown of England, but even the paraphernalia of royalty,—crown, sceptre, &c., which there is reason to think, have been sent to Modena. When Victor Emanuel renounced the throne of Piedmont, in 1821, his right to that crown passed to his brother Charles Felix, the present king,—females being excluded from the crown of Sardinia by the Salique law, which regulates there the succession of the sovereign. But as to his right to the crown of this country, where the Salique law has no force, that passed to his eldest daughter, now married to the Duke of Modena, Francis IV. of Este. These have several children, to the eldest of whom—a son—those rights will pass at her death.—The name of 'Este' is usurped by this said Francis. The male line of the Sicilian branch of the house of Este will be extinct at the death of his mother, Maria Beatrice, the only daughter of Ercole III. Duke of Modena the last male of these Estes. She was married to Ferdinand of Austria, commonly called the Archduke of Milan, Francis's father; so that he is of Austria, or more strictly speaking of Lorraine, as the house of Austria concluded with Maria Theresa, whose husband, Francis I. was of Lorraine. Therefore, the poor right of the *quondam* Stuarts to the crown of England, will pass to a branch of this new series of the house of Austria. The actual royal family of England,—whose ancestor Welf or Guelph IV. son to Alberto Azzo II. of Este, who died in 1097, was translated into Bavaria, of which he was made Duke in 1071—are the only true Estes now existing; a family whose antiquity and nobility have, perhaps, no equal. It is a curious fact, that the true Estes do now actually reign in England, whilst the empty claims of the Stuarts will pass to the children of one who descends only by his mother's side from that same house of Este of which he takes, most incorrectly, the name."—*Edinburg.*

William, by gaining the battle of the Boyne, annihilated James's hope of restoration. William prosecuted hostilities with France, with various success, till the battle of La Hogue made an impression on the French navy, from the effects of which it never afterwards recovered.

Anne.] After a reign in very few respects remarkable, William died in 1702, and was succeeded by Anne, princess of Denmark, and the next protestant heir to James II. Anne's administration was distinguished by the violent animosities of the existing factions. For some time the war against France was conducted with unabated vigour; and Marlborough, in the battles of Blenheim and Ramillies raised the reputation of the English arms to an unprecedented height. At length, however, it was discovered that the allies of England upon the continent, while they depended entirely on the efforts of the English arms, and trusted to supplies of English money, consulted only their own particular interests. This rendered the demand for peace almost universal; and it was accordingly concluded on terms sufficiently honourable to the nation. The union of England and Scotland—a transaction much more important than a war with France—distinguished the reign of Anne. The history of this measure, and the subsequent history of the United Kingdom, have been already comprehended under a previous article.

CHAP. II.—TOPOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS.

Divisions in Alfred's time.] The present division of England into counties or shires owes its origin to Alfred. These departments were denominated *counties*, because each of them, in the time of the Saxons, was governed by a *count* or ealdorman. After the Danish conquest, the appellation *earl*, from the Danish *jarl*, was substituted instead of *ealdorman*. At first the government of a county was exercised by its earl himself; but when the dignity had become hereditary, the earl devolved his duties upon a deputy, who is still called in Latin *vice-comes*, and to whom the name of *shire-reeve*, or *sheriff*—i. e. the manager of a shire, or division—was given. According to the division of England by Alfred, it contained but 32 counties: Durham and Lancaster being included in Yorkshire; Cornwall in Devonshire; Rutland in Northamptonshire; Monmouthshire in Wales; and Northumberland, Westmoreland, and Cumberland being subject to the Scots. The statute 34 Henry VIII. chap. 26, gave to the counties of Wales, and to the adjoining counties of England the names and extent which they still retain.

Ridings.] *Triding*—now corrupted into *Riding*—is an appellation evidently signifying that the county to which it is applied is divided into three parts. This division occurs only in Yorkshire.

Hundreds.] The next inferior division is that of *hundreds*. There is reason to believe that the Saxons first introduced this division into the southern part of the island. It is probable that each *hundred* contained one hundred free heads of families; it is certain that they were never regulated by mere population. Norfolk, though in size only about the 5th county in England, contains 33 hundreds; whereas in Lancashire there are only 6, in Cornwall 9, and in Northumberland 7. In some counties there are hundreds that do not exceed one square mile in area, nor contain more than 1,000 persons; while the hundreds of Lancashire average 300 square miles, and the population in one of them exceeds 250,000.

Wards.] In the northern parts of England, the counties were divided into *wards* and *wapentakes*. The former being still the divisions of Cumberland, Westmoreland, Northumberland, and Durham, and the latter of Yorkshire. These divisions were so called, from the circumstance of the inhabitants of each division being in ancient times obliged to keep watch and ward against the irruptions of the Scots or Picts.

Parishes.] Parishes were originally considered as ecclesiastical divisions; but may now be considered as civil divisions also. They are mentioned so early as in the laws of king Edgar, about the year 970. The parochial division of England was nearly the same in Edward the First's time (1288—1292) as it is at present. They seem to have been originally of the same extent as *manors*, since it very seldom happens that a manor extends itself over more parishes than one. The settling of the bounds of parishes depends on immemorial custom. They cannot now be altered but by legislative enactment. Some extensive parishes in the northern counties have been divided into *townships*, for the more effectual administration of the poor's laws: each township maintaining its own poor. Besides parishes and townships, there are some districts which are styled *extra-parochial*, or not within the limits of any parish. These enjoy a virtual exemption from parochial burdens; and their tithes are payable to the king instead of the bishop of the diocese. In some counties what are called *liberties* interrupt the general course of the law in the same manner.

Cities, Towns, &c. defined.] A *city* is a town incorporated, which either is or has been the see of a bishop; for though the bishopric be dissolved—as in the case of Westminster—it still remains a city. Every town, whether corporate or not, that sends burgesses to parliament, is a *borough*. Of other towns some have the privilege of *markets*, and some not. To several of these there are attached small appendages called *hamlets*, which are occasionally governed by separate officers.

Present Division of Counties.] The number of counties into which England is at present divided is 40; and Wales consists of 12. These may be classified in the following manner:

ENGLAND.

Northern Division.

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Principal Towns.</i>
1. Northumberland,	Newcastle, N. Shields, Hexham, Morpeth, Alnwick.
2. Cumberland,	Carlisle, Whitehaven, Workington, Penrith.
3. Durham,	Durham, Sunderland, Darlington.
4. Yorkshire, { E. Riding,	York, Hull, Beverley.
{ N. Riding,	Whitby, Scarborough, Richmond.
{ W. Riding,	Leeds, Halifax, Wakefield, Huddersfield, Sheffield, Bradford.
5. Westmoreland,	Kendal, Appleby.
6. Lancashire,	Liverpool, Manchester, Bolton, Preston, Lancaster, Wigan, Warrington, Blackburn, Rochdale, Bury.

Counties bordering on Wales.

Cheshire,	Chester, Stockport, Knutsford, Macclesfield, Nantwich.
2. Shropshire,	Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Oswestry.
3. Herefordshire,	Hereford, Leominster.
4. Monmouthshire,	Monmouth, Chepstow, Abergavenny.

Midland Counties.

1. Nottinghamshire, Nottingham, Newark, Mansfield.
2. Derbyshire, Derby, Chesterfield, Buxton, Matlock.
3. Staffordshire, Lichfield, Stafford, Newcastle-under-Lime, Burton-upon-Trent.
4. Leicestershire, Leicester, Loughborough, Hinkley, Lutterworth.
5. Rutlandshire, Rutland, Oakham, Uppingham
6. Northamptonshire, Northampton, Peterborough, Wellingborough, Kettering, Daventry.
7. Warwickshire, Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford-on-Avon.
8. Worcestershire, Worcester, Kidderminster, Stourbridge, Dudley.
9. Gloucestershire, Gloucester, Part of Bristol, Cirencester, Tewkesbury.
10. Oxfordshire, Oxford, Witney, Woodstock, Banbury.
11. Buckinghamshire, Buckingham, Aylesbury, Eton.
12. Bedfordshire, Bedford, Dunstable, Ampthill.

Eastern Counties.

1. Lincolnshire, Lincoln, Boston, Stamford, Gainsborough.
2. Huntingdonshire, Huntingdon, St Ives.
3. Cambridgeshire, Cambridge, Ely, Wisbeach, Newmarket.
4. Norfolk, Norwich, Yarmouth, Lynn.
5. Suffolk, Ipswich, Bury St Edmund's, Lowestoft.
6. Essex, Chelmsford, Harwich, Colchester, Rocking, Braintree.
7. Hertfordshire, Hertford, St Alban's, Ware, Barnet.
8. Middlesex, London and Westminster.

South-eastern Counties.

1. Surrey, Southwark, Guildford, Kingston-on-Thames, Farnham, Dorking, Croydon.
2. Kent, Canterbury, Rochester, Maidstone, Chatham, Gravesend, Dover, Tunbridge.
3. Sussex, Chichester, Lewes, Hastings, Horsham.

Southern Counties.

1. Berkshire, Reading, Abingdon, Windsor, Newbury.
2. Wiltshire, Salisbury, Devizes, Wilton, Bradford, Trowbridge, Chippenham.
3. Hampshire, Winchester, Southampton, Portsmouth; and Newport, Cowes, and Yarmouth, in the Isle of Wight.
4. Dorsetshire, Dorchester, Poole, Weymouth, Bridport, Blandford, Shaftesbury.
1. Somersetshire, Bath, Wells, Taunton, Bridgewater.
2. Devonshire, Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstaple, Honiton
3. Cornwall, Launceston, Falmouth, Truro.

WALES.

North Wales.

1. Flintshire, Flint, St Asaph, Holywell.
2. Denbighshire, Denbigh, Wrexham.
3. Caernarvonshire, Bangor, Caernarvon.
4. Isle of Anglesea, Beaumaris, Holyhead.
5. Merionethshire, No town of consequence.
6. Montgomeryshire, Welshpool, Montgomery.

South Wales.

1. Radnorshire, Presteign, New Radnor.
2. Cardiganshire, Cardigan, Aberystwith.
3. Pembrokeshire, Pembroke, St David's, Tenby, Haverford-West.
4. Carmarthenshire, Carmarthen.
5. Brecknockshire, Brecknock, Crickhowell.
6. Glamorganshire, Caerdiff, Landaff, Swansea.

Counties Palatine.] Three of the counties in England are called *counties palatine*: viz., Cheshire, Durham, and Lancashire. They are so called (*a palatio*) because formerly the owners of them had the same powers and privileges within them respectively as the king himself possessed in his palace. Durham is the only palatine still in possession of a subject. The earldom of Chester was united to the crown by Henry III., and has ever since that period given a title to the eldest son of the king; and, by various acts of parliament, the inheritance to the whole lands of the duchy of Lancaster is vested in the crown. The Isle of Ely possesses *jura regalia* likewise as a royal franchise.

Berwick-upon-Tweed.] The town of Berwick-upon-Tweed originally formed part of Scotland; but it was reduced under the possession of the English crown by Edward I., who bestowed upon it certain privileges. It is specially named in all acts of parliament.

Isle of Man.] The Isle of Man is a distinct territory from England; and is not governed by its laws, nor affected by any act of parliament, unless it is particularly named in it.

Jersey, Guernsey, &c.] The islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, formerly belonged to the duchy of Normandy; but were united to the crown of England by the first princes of the Norman line. They are governed by their own laws; but an appeal lies from their courts to the king in council.

CHAP. III.—PHYSICAL FEATURES—MOUNTAINS—RIVERS—COASTS.

The general aspect of England is varied and delightful. "In some parts verdant plains extend as far as the eye can reach, watered by copious streams, and covered by innumerable cattle. In others, the pleasing vicissitudes of gently rising hills and bending vales, fertile in corn, waving with wood, and interspersed with meadows, offer the most delightful landscapes of opulence and beauty. Some tracts abound with prospects of the more romantic kind; lofty mountains, craggy rocks, deep narrow dells, and tumbling torrents; nor are there wanting, as a contrast to so many agreeable scenes, the gloomy features of black moors, and wide uncultivated heaths." Such is the general description of the face of this country, given by a writer who was every way capable of drawing a just and striking picture of what he undertook to represent.—The general aspect of Wales is bold, romantic, and mountainous. It consists of continued ranges of lofty mountains, and impending crags, intersected by numerous and deep ravines, with extensive valleys, and affording endless views of wild mountain scenery. These ranges extend in a direction from south-east to north-west, having their most abrupt declivity facing the latter quarter. Numerous projecting ridges laterally expand on various points of the compass, in countless ramifications; many of these are surmounted by lofty eminences, which present the appearance of mountains piled upon mountains; in other instances they shoot up ragged and abrupt from the bosom of deep valleys, in solitary and sublime grandeur.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal elevations in England form connected chains extending, one of them, along the western side of the country, from Cornwall to Cumberland,—a second along the south side from Dorset into Kent,—and a third, in an irregular waving line, from the Island of Port-

land to the Wolds in the East Riding of Yorkshire, terminating in the cliffs of Scarborough, and the lofty promontory of Flamboroughhead.

The Cheviot Hills.] In the northern part of Northumberland the mountains approach very near the coast, the top of Cheviot, the most elevated of them, not being distant from it more than 18 miles. The mountains around Cheviot, considering their elevation, are very valuable, being in general fine green hills, thrown into a great variety of forms, and enclosing many sequestered glens, some of which, from their magnitude, —the solitude which reigns in them,—the gloom of overhanging precipices from which the infant rivers seem struggling into the light of day,—have an air of great wildness and sublimity. These hills extend from the head of the river Coquet, down to Allenton, and thence northward to Prendwick, Branton, Ilderton, Wooler, Kirknewton and Mindrim, occupying at least an area of 90,000 acres.

Cumberland Hills.] Of the two mountain-districts of Cumberland, one bounds the east side of the county, and is the loftiest part of what may be called the British Appenines, which, extending from Derbyshire to Linlithgow, separate the eastern from the western coasts. The mountains called Cross-fell, Hartside-fell, Geltsdale forest, and Spadeadem waste, are rich in limestone, sandstone, slate, clay, coal, and lead ore, but are by no means remarkable for their picturesque appearance. The other range occupies the south-western division of the county; the immense elevation and singular form of these mountains are the most striking features in the romantic scenery of the lakes. They rise from 1,100 to 3055 feet above the level of the sea. In the valley bounded by these two ridges, and stretching from Westmoreland to the Solway Frith, the strata are red sandstone, with beds of limestone, sandstone, coal, &c., analogous to those in Cross-fell range.

Welsh Mountains.] The principal range in North Wales is the Snowdon chain, occupying its centre. The greater part of the rocks composing these mountains are schistose, hornblende, schistose mica, granite, and porphyry, inclosing considerable blocks of quartz. The western side is very precipitous, consisting of hornstone, upon which are placed a number of basaltic columns, more or less regularly pentagonal, and standing perpendicularly to the plane of the horizon. The Ferwyn chain occupies the eastern part of Merionethshire, and branches out into Denbighshire.—Cader Ferwyn, Cader Fronwen, and Sylattin, are the most elevated points. From Pennant, in Montgomeryshire, to the sea-coast near Llangyllin in Merionethshire, is another extensive ridge containing several lofty mountains, known under the appellation of the Arrans and the Arrenigs. The most eminent of these are Arran-ben-llyn, and Arran-fowdy, and the extremity of the line is marked by the triple head of the lofty Cadair-Idris. The celebrated Plinlimmon elevates his lofty crest over a range of tableland that extends from Llanvair, in the N.E., to the abrupt cliffs bounding the bay of Cardigan near Aberystwith. Among particular elevations in this line, after the sovereign of the group, the Carno mountains are the most conspicuous. Plinlimmon comprises granite, granitell of Kirwan composed of quartz and shori, and siliceous and schistose porphyry, intersected with numerous and expansive veins of pure quartz. In South Wales an extensive chain stretches from Bleddva forest in Radnorshire, through Brecknock and Caermarthenshires, terminating in the conspicuous Prescelly or Presceulu mountain, in Pembrokeshire. The most distinguished eminences in this line are the Cwm Rhyaglog, Pen-y-cader, Mynydd cas-

tal, Newydd 'Carreg Wen, and Llanvernach. This group is distinguished by the name of the Yellow mountains. The Fothoc hills, on the east of Brecknockshire—from the dark heath with which they are covered, called the Black mountains—form another range which is inclosed by the isolated mountain called Penbre hill. Its more remarkable elevations are Tre Beddw mountain, and the Pen-Mallard hills. The hills of this division abound in valuable minerals, and in rare vegetable productions. They are also interspersed with the most romantic valleys, fertile in the extreme, and picturesque beyond the powers of conception. Wales is remarkable for the profusion of lakes and flowing streams with which it is watered.

The following table of the latitude, longitude, and altitude of such hills in England and Wales as exceed 2,000 feet in elevation, is taken from Mudge and Colby's valuable "Trigonometrical Survey."—

	Latitude N.			Lon. from Green.			All feet
	Deg.	M.	S.	Deg.	M.	S.	
Arran Fowddy, Merionethshire,	52	47	—	3	42	— W.	2955
Arreneig, ditto,	52	53	24	3	45	— W.	2809
Beacons of Brecknock,	51	53	4	3	25	26 W.	2862
Cader Ferwyn, Merionethshire,	52	52	—	3	21	— W.	2563
Cader Idris, ditto,	52	42	2	3	53	36 W.	2914
Caernarthen Vair,	51	52	56	3	41	35 W.	2596
Calf Hill, Westmoreland,	54	22	11	2	30	13 W.	2188
Carn Fell, Yorkshire,	—	—	—	—	—	— W.	2245
Capellante, Brecknockshire,	51	51	47	3	29	3 W.	2394
Carnedd David, Caernarvonshire,	—	—	—	—	—	— W.	3427
Carned, Llewellyn, ditto,	—	—	—	—	—	— W.	3469
Cheviot, Northumberland,	55	28	52	2	8	12 W.	2658
Conistone Fell,	54	22	20	3	6	34 W.	2577
Cradle Mountain, Brecknockshire,	51	57	7	3	6	39 W.	2546
Cross Fell, Cumberland,	54	42	18	2	28	37 W.	2901
Grasmere Fell, Cumberland,	—	—	—	—	—	— W.	2756
Hedgehope, Northumberland,	55	28	28	2	4	54 W.	2347
Helvellyn, Cumberland,	54	31	43	3	0	21 W.	3055
High Pike, ditto,	44	42	27	3	2	49 W.	2101
Ingleborough Hill, Yorkshire,	54	10	4	2	23	18 W.	2361
Nine Standards, Westmoreland,	54	27	21	2	15	57 W.	2136
Pennigant Hill, Yorkshire,	54	10	56	2	14	22 W.	2270
Pillar, Cumberland,	54	29	57	3	16	7 W.	2893
Plynlimmon Hill, Cardiganshire,	52	28	3	3	46	4 W.	2463
Radnor Forest, Radnorshire,	52	16	2	3	11	16 W.	2163
Saddleback, Cumberland,	54	38	30	3	2	17 W.	2787
Sea Fell, (Low Point), ditto,	54	27	2	3	12	45 W.	3092
Sea Fell (High Point), ditto,	—	—	—	—	—	— W.	3166
Shunner Fell, Yorkshire,	54	22	21	2	13	31 W.	2329
Skiddaw, Cumberland,	54	39	12	3	8	9 W.	3022
Snea Fell, Isle of Man,	54	17	28	4	26	46 W.	2004
Snowdon, Caernarvonshire,	53	4	9	4	3	38 W.	3571
Water Cragg, Yorkshire,	54	26	19	2	6	8 W.	2186
Whernside (in Ingleton Fells) Yorkshire,	54	13	45	2	23	35 W.	2364
Whernside (in Kettlewell Dale) ditto,	54	9	44	1	59	24 W.	2263

It hence appears—though the fact was unknown previous to the Trigonometrical Survey—that there are in England and Wales, 28 mountains between 2,000 and 3,000 feet in height, and 7 each exceeding 3,000 feet.

RIVERS.] The most considerable rivers are the Thames, Severn, Medway, Trent, Ouse, Tyne, Tees, Wear, Mersey, Dee, Avon, Eden, and

Darwent, which, aided by an extensive system of canal navigation, afford an easy access into the interior of the country, and enable the most inland districts to communicate readily with the sea as well as with one another. In the last edition of Camden's *Britannia* that was published by himself (in 1605) there is a table, from which it appears that there are upwards of 550 rivers and rivulets in England and Wales, distinguished by particular names.

The Thames.] The sources of the Thames are 4 rivulets which rise in different parts of the Cotswood hills in Gloucestershire. Of these the *Isis* is the most important. This stream, having passed Oxford and the Berkshires hills, is joined by the *Thames* a little below Dorchester, and the river, after the junction of these two streams, obtains its proper name—*Thames*, or *Thame-isis*. From Wallingford to Pangbourn the inclination of the stream is almost due S.; at the latter place it bends by E. to W.; it then inclines by N.E. to S. again, until it approaches Maidenhead; hence it winds generally S.E. till it passes Staines. It here forms a vast circle by S. to E. till it reaches Brentford; after which it flows N.E. towards London. In the vicinity of the metropolis, it turns with a bold swell to the E.; and it preserves this direction, varied by broad reaches, till it falls into the sea. In its passage it receives 6 unnavigable and 11 navigable streams. Its course has been computed at about 160 miles, of which 130 are navigable. The tide flows up to nearly the distance of 80 miles from its mouth; and it is navigable for vessels of 800 tons as far as London. The Thames is neither a rapid nor sluggish stream; its waters are seldom discoloured by mud, except after great floods. It flows through a rich and highly beautiful country; and at London becomes a superb tide-river.

The Severn.] The Severn, which is the second commercial river in the kingdom, has its principal source in a small lake on the eastern side of Plinlimmon. It takes its proper name of Severn as it approaches Newtown. Hence, through the delightful vale of Montgomery, its course is almost due W., till entering the great plain of Shropshire it turns abruptly to the S.E. A little below Bewdly it becomes a commercial river: being joined by those numerous canals which bear the trade of Birmingham, Kidderminster, and the other manufacturing towns of Warwick, Stafford, and Worcestershire. As it flows through the vast plain of Gloucestershire, its banks become so high and steep that it almost disappears. Between Tewksbury and the sea, there is only one passage over this river by bridge; this is at Gloucester. Having received the Wye near Chepstow, and the Avon from Somersetshire, it grows gradually wider, and forms the *Bristol channel*. The Severn is remarkable for its tide, which rolls in with a head 3 or 4 feet high. In the year 1824, the idea of a ship-canal to connect the English with the Bristol channel, was started, but afterwards dropped in consequence of the severe shock given to public confidence in all speculative undertakings. A reduced plan, however, has been suggested, the whole expense of which has been estimated at £600,000, including the construction of a harbour at Beer.

The Mersey.] The Mersey derives its source from a conflux of small streams at the junction of Cheshire with Derbyshire. Its course is serpentine, but generally with an inclination to the S.W. Near the village of Flexton it receives its largest tributary, the *Irwell*, which rises in the moors that divide Lancashire from Yorkshire. A little below Warrington, the Mersey forms a great arm of the sea, which, turning abruptly to

the S.W., grows narrower as it passes the port of Liverpool, near its exit. The Mersey is navigable for vessels of considerable burden for about 35 miles from Liverpool to the mouth of the Irwell.

The Dee.] The Dee, a beautiful and romantic river, rises in the mountainous parts of Merionethshire, and flows through the charming valley of Llangollen, into the great plain of Cheshire. It half encompasses the ancient city of Chester; and, flowing from thence to the sea, forms a broad sandy estuary inclining to the N.W.

The Tyne.] The Tyne is formed by two branches called the North and South Tyne, both of which pursue a wild and romantic course till they reach Tynedale. After passing Hexham—which occupies a central spot near the junction of the two branches—the Tyne flows through a vale rich in manufactures, and passing Newcastle, to which ships of moderate burden can come up, and N. and S. Shields, falls into the sea at Tynemouth.

The Trent.] The Trent rises in the hills beyond Newcastle-under-Lyne. At first its course is nearly S.E.; it then makes a sudden turn E. by N. Passing Nottingham and Newark, in a N.E. direction, it suddenly turns N., and about 5 miles below Burton-upon-Strather, falls into the Humber. It is navigable upwards of 100 miles, and receives an immense number of canals and auxiliary streams. Its general character is that of a full transparent stream.

The Humber.] The Humber is a name almost exclusively given to the great estuary that divides Yorkshire from Lincolnshire, being formed of the Trent and the Ouse.

The Medway.] The river Medway has four sources which unite at Maidstone, to which place the tide flows up, and the river is navigable for vessels to the burden of 50 tons. After passing Maidstone, it turns with a long compass by N. to E. to reach Rochester and Chatham. Between the latter place and Gillingham—which is about a mile and a half to the N.E. of it—some of the largest ships in the royal navy are usually laid up. It joins the arm of the sea called the Swale, which divides the Isle of Sheppey from the mainland of Kent. Its whole course is about 40 miles; and that circumstance considered, it is one of the deepest rivers in Europe.

Lakes.] Westmoreland and Cumberland are celebrated for their lakes, which, during the summer attract numerous visitors. Winandermere is the most extensive piece of water in England, being $10\frac{1}{2}$ miles in a straight line down its middle, and from 1 to 2 miles in breadth. Its depth is 13, 23, 29, and 31 fathoms. It contains 13 islands, and covers about 4534 acres. Ulswater is about 9 miles in length, and varies in breadth from a quarter of a mile to 2 miles. There are various other smaller lakes in this county: as Derwentwater, Bassinethwaitewater, Overwater, Loweswater, Crummuckwater, Buttermere, Ennerdalewater, Wastwater and Devockwater: besides some pieces of water called *Tarns*. Whittlesea lake, in Huntingdonshire, is a shallow piece of water covering an immense tract of country.

Canals.] The first lateral navigable canal was commenced in England about 70 years since. At the present time there are nearly 80 canal-companies in operation, who have expended £30,000,000 in their undertakings, and make a yearly dividend of £800,000 upon their capital.*

* The following list exhibits the length of the principal Canals in England and Wales:—

COASTS.—*Western Coast.*] The coast upon the W., beginning at the Solway Frith to Braich-y-pwl point, is partly flat and partly bold and elevated. Here is a wide inlet containing the estuary of the Solway Frith, Morecambe bay, the estuaries of the Ribble,¹⁰ the Mersey, and the Dee, and, in the very centre of it, the Isle of Man. Directly S. from the Isle of Man, is the Isle of Anglesey, forming one of the counties of Wales, and separated from the main land by a long and narrow passage called the Menai Straits.—Cardigan bay, another immense opening, stretches from Braich-y-pwl point to St David's Head, presenting a coast in general rugged, mountainous and wild; and between St David's Head and the Land's-end there is another vast indentation which gives space to St Bride's bay. Milford haven, Caermarthen and Swansea bays, the Bristol Channel or estuary of the Severn, and Barnstaple bay. The beach along this tract continues mostly high and rocky; off from it, there are some small scattered islands, of no particular note, if we except the isles of Scilly, which lie nearly 30 miles west from Cornwall. Ancient history fully supports the belief, that a great and mighty change has been gradually going

	Miles.		Miles.
Andover,	22½	Kingston and Leominster	45½
Ashby-de-la-Zouch,	41½	Lancaster	75
Barnaley,	15	Leeds and Liverpool	129
Basingstoke,	37½	Leicester	26
Birmingham,	42½	Monmouthshire	22
Bolton and Bury,	11	Montgomeryshire	27
Brecknock,	33	Neath	13
Bridgewater's	27	Nottingham	17½
Chester	18	Oakham	14½
Chesterfield	44½	Oxford	90½
Coventry	32½	Peake forest	15½
Cromford	14½	Rochdale	33
Croydon	9½	Sankey	12½
Dearne and Done	9½	Severn and Thames	28½
Derby	8½	Shrewsbury	17½
Dudley	12½	Shropshire	17½
Ellesmere	57½	Somerset coal	17½
Erewash	11½	Southampton and Salisbury	17
Glamorganshire	25	Staffordshire and Worcestershire	46½
Gloucester and Berkeley	17½	Stratford	25½
Grand Junction	93½	Swansea	17
Grand Trunk	93	Thames and Medway	8½
Grand Union	41½	Warwick and Birmingham	22½
Grand Western	35	Ditto and Napton	14
Grantham	33	Weald of Kent	29
Hereford and Gloucester	35½	Wilts and Berks	52
Huddersfield	19½	Worcester	29½
Kennet and Avon	37	Wyrely and Essington	23

"The Ribble was once the most distinguished river in this part of the country; it was used by the Romans in preference to any other, and emphatically called the "Port of Lancashire," being eight or ten miles wide at its mouth, and the stream running inland up to Ribchester. Now, however, the tide does not approach that village within several miles, and the navigable channel of the Ribble is considerably narrowed. Popular tradition ascribes this mighty change to some violent convulsion of nature. Whittaker, in reference to this singular circumstance, observes—"Tradition, the faithful preserver of many a fact which history has overlooked or forgotten, speaks confidently of such a cause, ascribing the final ruin of Ribchester to the overwhelming violence of an earthquake. And nothing but such an accident, I think, could have originally changed the nature of this, once the most remarkable estuary in the county, and have thrown up that large and broad barrier of sand which crosses the entrance into it, almost chokes the inlet of the tide, and contracts the original breadth of the navigable channel, from its majestic extent of eight or nine miles, to the narrow span of an hundred yards."

on for the last 10 or 12 centuries in the boundaries of the sea in these parts; so much so, that the lands forming the Scilly islands, the Isle of Wight, &c., formerly united with the main land, are now detached by a considerable channel, and a great portion of the coast of Cornwall and Devonshire has been invaded and swept away by encroachments of the sea. The Scilly islands, it is stated upon good authority, were formerly only 10 in number, though they are now upwards of 140.

Southern Coast.] Proceeding eastward, along the southern shore, from the high rugged projection called the Land's End, the spacious bay of St Michael soon opens on the view; and, on doubling the Lizard Point, there appears a large semicircular sweep, including, among other inlets and capes, Falmouth haven, Rame-head, and Plymouth Sound. Nearly opposite to Rame-head, about 14 miles out at sea, are the Eddystone rocks, over which the sea frequently breaks with tremendous violence, and on which is built a strong light-house for the direction of vessels leaving the Channel and Plymouth Sound. Between Prawle-point and Portland-bill, is another vast indentation, the most remarkable objects in the curvature of which are, Start-point, the Bay of Dartmouth, Froward-point, Torbay, Hopesnose, and the estuary of the Exe. Next follow Portland road, Weymouth bay, and St Alban's head. From this promontory to Selsey-bill, the coast is very much deflected by several creeks and headlands; among which are Peverel-point, Sandwich bay, Poole harbour, with an island in its entrance, Christchurch bay, Hurst Cape, Southampton water, Portsmouth harbour, and a capacious basin interspersed with small islands. Opposite to the estuary of Southampton lies the Isle of Wight—which forms with the main land a sheltered channel consisting of the Needles passage, the Solent, and the famous road of Selsey-bill—the shore in general takes a north-easterly direction, and nothing remarkable occurs until Beachyhead, a bold and elevated point, makes its appearance. The only other objects which attract particular attention are the rock of Hastings, Dungeness, and Dover cliffs.

Eastern coast.] Off Kent, as we enter on the eastern coast, are the Downs,—a road much frequented by ships, and defended from the swells of the British ocean by the *Goodwin Sands*. These very remarkable banks are situated between the North and South Forelands, opposite Deal and Ramsgate, and about seven or eight miles from the coast. The length of the sands is about 10 miles, and the breadth nearly 2. They consist of a more soft, fluid, porous, spongy, but withal tenacious matter, than the neighbouring sands, and are consequently of such a quality, that when a ship strikes upon them there is little chance of her getting off; the nature of the sand being such as to swallow the vessel up sometimes in a few hours, while the surf which breaks upon them renders all attempts to approach the ill-fated vessel impossible. When the water is off these sands, they become exceedingly hard and firm, so that people may land, and stay for hours upon them in summer; indeed cricket-matches have been played upon them; but woe to those who do not quit at the proper moment, for in a very short time they become a quicksand, and float to and fro with the waves; when these waves retire again they settle as before.¹¹ A level sandy beach separates

¹¹ When the Trinity House some years since formed a design to erect a light-house upon the Goodwin Sands, the engineers employed penetrated to a great depth with their boring augurs, but they could reach no solid bottom, as the spongy materials reached to such a depth as to render the design utterly impracticable; a floating light was in consequence established. On the 28th of November, 1793, a most dreadful storm arose from the W.S.W. and blew for many hours with great violence, during which 13 men of war drove from their anchorage in the Downs, ran upon the fatal Goodwins, and were totally lost, with nearly all their crews, only 71 being saved.

the high chalky cliffs which face the coast for a considerable way on each side of the South Foreland, from those which skirt the bold and rugged shore of the Isle of Thanet,—a place formerly detached from the rest of Kent by a navigable river, but now little more than a peninsula. The most easterly point of this isle is the North Foreland; between which and Orfordness, there is a vast gulf into which the rivers Medway, Thames, Crouch, and Malden, discharge their waters, and along which, the shore, after passing the Isle of Sheppy, is for the most part flat and marshy. From Orfordness to the spacious inlet called the Wash, the coast assumes a circular direction, and presents an intermixture of low ground, sandy hillocks, and clayey precipices. Crossing the Wash, and keeping the level beach of Lincolnshire, we come to the Humber, beyond which, with the exception of Spurnhead, Flamborough-head, and Scarborough, there are few indentations or promontories of note. Scarborough stands on a vast rock, projecting into the sea; but Flamborough-head is a far more magnificent object, being formed of limestone of a snowy whiteness, and stupendous height, visible far off at sea. From Spurnhead to Flamborough-head, the coast is commonly flat; from this to Bamborough castle, it is first bold and precipitous, and then descends to low cliffs of sandstone and other materials; and from this to Berwick-upon-Tweed, it is tame and sandy. Not far from the shore, opposite to the Northumbrian coast, appear the Coquet isle, the Fern isles, and Holy isle.

CHAP. IV.—CLIMATE—SOILS—STRATA—MINERALS—ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE KINGDOMS.

THE climate of England may be characterized as variable, inclining to moisture and cold, though neither extreme of temperature is felt so keenly here as on the continent under the same parallels. There is perhaps no country in Europe which displays a richer and more beautiful verdure for such a large portion of the year, as the southern part of our island. It would appear, however, that the climate of England has not only become considerably colder in the summer months, but also more humid than in former days. In illustration of this circumstance, William of Malmesbury—who has been more particular in his information than many other historians—remarks, in his book ‘*De Pontificibus*,’ that the vale of Gloucester used to produce, in the 12th century, as good wine as many of the provinces of France; and, it is well-known, that in the counties of Worcester, Hereford, Somerset, Cambridge, and Essex, there are lands which bear the name of *vineyards*,—many of them having been attached to particular church-establishments, whose ruins are yet in their vicinity. In regard to the vale of Gloucester, William of Malmesbury says, ‘there is no province in England which has so many and good vineyards, neither on account of

Concerning the origin of these sands there are various opinions; but the common received story of their having once been the estate of Godwyne, earl of Kent, the father of Harold, who fell at Hastings, is now exploded, as well as their having once been an island called Lomea, and having been destroyed by the sea in the year 1097. The most probable opinion of our best antiquaries is, that instead of these sands being occasioned by an inundation of the sea, they were caused by the sea’s leaving them at the time of that terrible inundation in the reign of king William Rufus, or in that of Henry I., which drowned so large a part of Flanders and the Low Countries. This desertion of the sea in these parts might have been further increased by following inundations in other places, especially upon the parts of Zealand which anciently consisted of fifteen islands, eight of which were swallowed up in Henry the Second’s time.

their fertility or the sweetness of the grape.' Of late years, however, all experiments to cultivate the vine in England, except when trained against walls, have failed. The climate of Wales is more humid and is colder than that of England under the same parallels.

Average Quantity of Rain and Dew.] Dr Halley supposes the average quantity of rain that falls in England to be 22 inches; but this is certainly below the average. Mr Walton, with much greater probability, fixes it at 31.3 inches. In this country it generally rains less in March than in November, in the proportion—as a medium—of 7 to 2; less in April than in October, in the proportion of 1 to 2; and less in May than in September; at least the chances for this are as 4 to 3. Dr Hales thinks that the quantity of dew that falls on moist earth in this country is 3.28 inches; but Mr Walton has estimated the total deposition at 5 inches annually; and thus reckons that 36 inches of water are deposited, at a medium, annually on the surface of the earth in England and Wales, which is equal to 28 cubic miles, or 115,000,000,000 tons.

Temperature.] It appears from an account kept at Liverpool for 25 years, by Mr Hutchinson, that the mean heat in that city, at 12 noon is 53°. The greatest degree of heat experienced was 86°; the least 22°. The mean heat at Dover is 53°; at London 51° 9'. It is said that in the winter of the years 1794, 1798, and 1813-14, the thermometer was observed to sink to 5° of Zero. In the summer of 1808 it was as high as 90°.

Winds.] The W. and S.W. winds are very prevalent, and also the most violent in the south part of the island. Next to them are the N. and N.E. winds. The former may be accounted for from the exposure of the island to the Atlantic ocean. The latter which prevails generally from about the middle of April to the 7th or 8th of May—and sometimes longer—may be thus accounted for. In Sweden and Norway the face of the country is covered with snow to the middle of May or longer. This frozen covering, which has been formed during winter, grows gradually shallower to the 15th or 16th of May, or until the sun has acquired 17° or 18° of N. declination; while, on the other hand, the valleys and mountains of England have received an accession of temperature of 24° or 25°. On this account, when the temperature of Sweden and Norway is cooled down by snow to 32°, that of Britain is 24° or 25° higher than that of the preceding countries; because, while the ground is covered with snow, the rays of the sun are incapable of heating the air above 32°. For this reason, the air of England is 24° or 25° more heated than that of the before-mentioned countries. The air of Sweden and Norway will then, of course, by the law of comparative specific gravities, displace that of England; and from the relative situation of those countries with this country, will produce a N.E. wind. This current is commonly stronger by day than by night, because the variation of temperature in the air of Great Britain is at that time the greatest, being frequently from 50° to 60° about noon, and sinking to 32° in the night. The wind that most seldom occurs is that from the S.

State of the Barometer.] Mr Hutchinson ascertained that the mean height of the barometer at Liverpool, during 25 years, was 29.74 inches; the greatest range being 2.89; and the annual average range 1.96. The barometer at Dover, on an average of 5 years, showed a mean height of 29.90, and 2.47 of greatest range, the mean range being 1.80. The mean annual height at York, on an average of 4 years, was 29.70; and at London, for many years, 29.88. According to Mr Kirwan, the usual variation of the barometer in England is 2.5 inches.

Soils.] The soils of England are various, but may be classed under the following general heads: clay, loam, sand, chalk, gravel, and peat. Mossy soils are very common and extensive in the northern parts of England.—The wolds of Kent, Surrey, and Sussex exhibit a larger extent of one species of soil than any part of the kingdom.

Strata.] The whole of England may be considered as composed of a series of flat or undulating beds, placed one above another, and sloping very gently upwards from S.E. to N.W. The general surface of the island also rises pretty uniformly from the E. and S. shores to the mountainous districts of the W.

Minerals.] The following are the minerals of England, with the districts where they are found:

<i>Minerals.</i>	<i>Where found.</i>
Gold.	In different places, particularly it is said near Silsoe, in Bedfordshire; but never in a quantity so great as to indemnify the labour of procuring it.
Horn-ore.	In Cornwall. It is wrought with secrecy, and the quantity procured is uncertain.
Tin.	Cornwall. The quantity of tin furnished by this county is great; the quality excellent. Cornwall has been noted for this metal from the earliest antiquity.
Copper.	Redruth, Alston's Land End, in Cornwall, in Yorkshire, in Staffordshire, and in the Parry's mountain in Anglesey.
Lead.	Mendip hills, Somersetshire, Derbyshire, and Alston in Cumberland, where the mines employ 1100 men.
Iron.	Found in many districts. The chief mines are those of Colebrookdale, Shropshire; Dean-Forest, Gloucestershire; and Ulverston, Lancashire.
Wolfram.	Huel rock.
Zinc.	Cornwall and Derbyshire.
Plumbago.	Borrowdale, near Keswick, in Cumberland.
Nickel.	} Cornwall.
Arsenic.	
Menachanite.	} Mendip hills, Shropshire.
Calamine.	
Manganese.	} Newcastle, Shields, Sunderland, and in many districts in the central, northern, and western parts of England.
Coal. ¹⁰	
Rock-salt.	Cheshire. The mines of Northwich are so extensive as to produce, yearly, 65,000 tons.
Marble.	} Portland and Purbeck.
Freestone.	
Alabaster.	Derbyshire.
Fullers-earth.	Berkshire.

The principal minerals of Wales are silver, copper, iron, lead, and coal. These are found principally in the counties of Flint, Caernarvon, Montgomery, and Cardigan. M. Bakewell, in his 'Introduction to Geology,' states that in South Wales, adjoining the Bristol Channel, there is from

¹⁰ This useful fossil was known to the Britons before the arrival of the Romans, who, says Pennant, had not even a name for coals, though Theophrastus describes them very accurately, at least three centuries before the time of Cæsar, and even says that they were known to workers in brass. Brand says that they were burnt by the Romans. The Anglo-Saxons knew, and partly used them. Brand, however, observes that they were not mentioned under the Danish usurpation, nor under the Normans; but were known in the reign of Henry III. In 1306 they were prohibited in London, as a nuisance, but were used in the palace in 1321, and became, soon after, an important article of commerce. In 1512 they were not always used, because not having got to the main stratum, people complained that they would not burn without wood. The best was then sold at 5s. a chaldron; a bad sort at 4s. 2d. Except blacksmiths, they were confined, in the 17th century, under the name of sea-coal, to the lower orders, who could not afford to buy wood; and were hawked about the streets in sacks, upon men's backs.

1000 to 1200 square miles of coal, sufficient to supply England for 2000 years, after all other coal-mines are exhausted.

Mineral Springs.] England abounds in mineral waters, the principal of which are: Bath, celebrated ever since the times of Roman domination,—the hot wells of Bristol,—those of Tunbridge in Kent,—of Buxton in Derbyshire,—Scarborough and Harrowgate in the north,—and Cheltenham in Gloucestershire.

Animal Kingdom.] The English horse has been greatly improved by crossing with the finest foreign breeds, till in spirit, strength, and speed he is fully equal or superior to that of any country. The different breeds of sheep, too, have been greatly improved by the care and skill of the breeder. Dogs of every variety have been naturalized here; but the bull-dog is said to be peculiarly English, and it possesses strength and courage in an extraordinary degree. Of savage animals, since the extirpation of the wolf—which was effected in the reign of James VII.—the largest and strongest are the fox and wild cat. The badger is frequently met with, as also the stoat, the martin—of which there are two species—the otter, the squirrel, and the dormouse. Rats are numerous, particularly the brown rat of India falsely called the Norway rat, which has nearly extirpated the native iron-gray rat. Mice of various kinds are common. The hedgehog is not rare, and the mole is still a nuisance in every rich and well-cultivated field. The stag is yet found in its native state upon the borders of Cornwall, and two species of fallow-deer are still preserved. Hares are abundant. The sea-calf and great seal are frequently seen upon the coasts, particularly the coast of Wales. The larger birds of prey have now almost everywhere disappeared, as indeed they generally do from a country well-cultivated and well-inhabited. The golden eagle is still found on Snowdon in Wales, and the black eagle is sometimes seen in Derbyshire; but the osprey or sea-eagle seems to be extinct. The peregrine, or foreign falcon, is confined to Wales; but the various kinds of hawks are numerous all over the country. The largest wild bird is the bustard; it is found only in the eastern counties, and weighs from 25 to 27 lbs.; the smallest is the golden-crested wren, which sports in the branches of the loftiest pines. The nightingale, celebrated for its plaintive tones and extraordinary compass of voice, is confined chiefly to the eastern and middle counties, and is rarely observed to the north of Doncaster. The domestic birds of England seem to be wholly of foreign origin: the poultry from Asia, the Guinea fowl from Africa, the peacock from India, the pheasant from Colchis in Asiatic Turkey, and the turkey from America. The English reptiles are the frog, the toad, a species of tortoise, lizards of several kinds, and serpents, some of which have been found 4 feet in length. The viper alone is venomous. On the coast are found turbot, dace, soal, cod, plaice, smelt, mullet, pilchards, and herrings; the basking-shark sometimes occurs on the Welsh coasts. The river-fish are the salmon, trout, the char, the greyling, the samlet, the tench, the perch, and many other kinds. Various parts of the coast afford shell-fish of different species. The most esteemed oysters are the green oyster from Colchester in Essex, and the white oyster from Milton in Kent. According to Pennant, the number of genera of British animals is 10; of birds 48; of reptiles 4; and of fish 40, exclusive of coriaceous and shell-fish.

Vegetable Kingdom.] Of the vast variety of trees which wave on her hills, and adorn her innumerable plantations, a very few only are indigenous to England; and of these the oak, which carries the terrors of

her name, the fruits of her industry, and the light and spirit of her admirable institutions over the globe, is the chief. Shrubs, ferns, mosses, lichens, and fungi, are far too numerous to be here described. The flora of England, though it cannot boast of the most splendid and exquisite of vegetable productions, yet contains as great a variety of genera and species as any other country of equal extent. The first for importance and variety is the family of grasses, of which 27 genera and 110 species are natives of our island. The leguminous or papilionaceous plants are likewise numerous. There are about 60 species of umbelliferous, and 28 of bulbous-rooted plants. The native fruits belong, for the most part, to the natural class of rosaceous plants.

CHAP. VI.—AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES.

SECT. I.—AGRICULTURE.

Northern Counties.] *Northumberland* is a distinguished agricultural district. Farming being here conducted on a great scale, by men of intelligence, enterprise, and capital, has reached a high degree of perfection, although the climate is severe, compared with that of most other counties in England. The soil varies through many gradations, from great fertility to a state of irreclaimable barrenness. The size of farms varies in most parts, from £50 to £500 of rent; in Glendale and Bamborough, from £500 to £1,500. In the northern parts of the county, some tenants farm from £2,000 to £4,000 a year. Leases are generally granted for 21 years.—Grazing has long been the principal object of the *Cumberland* farmers; and, till very lately, little more corn was here raised than was sufficient for the sustenance of the inhabitants. Extensive enclosures, however, have been recently made, and considerable quantities of flour and oatmeal are now exported. The dairies are small, but the butter is of excellent quality.—The soil of *Westmoreland* is in some of the lower places of the county excellent; but a great part of it is wholly wild, and in its present state of so little value, that, in some places, the liberty of keeping ten sheep at grass may be hired for a sixpence. The farmers here were long of opinion that their lands were better suited to grass than to corn; and they ploughed them for three or four years, not so much for the purpose of raising corn, as to renovate them for grass, by destroying the moss which in a few years over-runs all their arable land. These notions, however, are now in a great measure antiquated. The clover and turnip-husbandry has made great progress, and considerable quantities of wheat are annually grown, though oats is the grain principally cultivated. Fold-yard dung and peat-ashes are the only manure; for although the limestone of the county is inexhaustible, the want of coal to burn it prevents its general application. In some parts of the county considerable portions of land are covered with coppices, consisting principally of oak, ash, elder, birch and hazel. These underwoods are generally cut down once in 16 years, for hoops and charcoal. The hoops are sold on the spot at £5 a thousand. The charcoal is sent to the iron-furnaces in the neighbourhood. The farms are generally small, and the rents made up by the sale of cattle, sheep, wool, butter, eggs, and hams. The *Durham* farms in general are of small extent; but excellent and powerful horses are bred here, and the cattle by suitable feeding are brought to a large size.—In the East Riding of *Yorkshire*, particularly upon the Wolds, agriculture is conducted upon a large scale, and has arrived at a

high pitch of perfection. Half a century ago, barley and oats were the principal kinds of grain produced here, and oat-bread was chiefly used by the inhabitants; now the valleys and the slopes of the hills wave with wheat. The western levels, also, have received great improvements. Within less than thirty years, vast commons in its southern part have been enclosed and cultivated; and a dreary and swampy waste—which in fogs or stormy weather could not be crossed without danger—is now covered with well-built farm-steads, and intersected in various directions with excellent roads. In the deep loamy soil of Pontefract, in the W. Riding, liquorice is produced in great perfection. For horned cattle Craven ranks deservedly high; and the sheep, by the introduction of the Dishley breed, have been greatly improved. The horses of Yorkshire have long been justly celebrated; they are bred principally in the East and North Ridings. In the Ainsty, mustard has become a valuable article of cultivation.—*Lancashire* has been long famous for potatoes. The productiveness of the soil, however, is greatly checked here by the humidity of the climate; hence, though agriculture has been skilfully followed in the neighbourhood of the towns, it has not made corresponding advances in other parts of the county.

Counties bordering on Wales.] Husbandry is well-understood in *Cheshire*; and very marked attention is paid to the dairy; hence it is celebrated both for the quality and quantity of its cheese, which forms a principal article of export. The annual amount of this article is estimated at 11,500 tons.—The soil of *Shropshire* may be said to exhibit almost every diversity. The climate also varies with the elevation of the land, but it is every where salubrious. On the eastern side of the county, where the land is warm and flat, harvest is frequently a fortnight earlier than in the middle, where the vales are extensive; but the surface is less light and the bottom clayey. The cultivation, though not remarkable, is every where good; and large quantities of all kinds of grain are produced. Many cattle are fed in the level parts of the county, though the growth of hay, and the improvement of pasture-lands are rather neglected, and much of the cheese sold under the name of *Cheshire*, is made here. The hilly district is chiefly devoted to the pasture of sheep, whose wool is of fine quality. Farms are generally of a large size. A few are held on leases for life, others for 7, 10, or 21 years, and many from year to year.—Agriculture is the essential and almost the sole pursuit of the inhabitants of *Herefordshire*. There is scarcely any department of husbandry which they do not cultivate, and few in which they do not excel. Nearly nine-tenths of the land is under cultivation, and the crops are generally most abundant. Round *Hereford*, and thence towards *Ledbury*, along the clays, wheat predominates. Oats are most abundant on the higher grounds to the W. and E.; and barley round *Ross*. The most fertile meadows are on the banks of the *Wye*, *Frome*, and *Lug*. Cyder and perry are leading objects in *Herefordshire* agriculture. The orchards are found in every situation; but the best is a south-eastern exposure, sheltered from the west, west winds being here peculiarly unfavourable to the fruit. The principal markets for these fruit-liquors are *London* and *Bristol*, whence they are exported to almost all quarters of the world. Hops are cultivated on the borders of *Worcester*, principally on the south-eastern exposures. Oak, elm, poplar, and willow, compose most of the woods. Field-labour of all kinds, ploughing and harvesting, is chiefly performed with oxen, the breed of which is reckoned the best in the kingdom; and the *Ryeland* sheep—so termed from a district in the southern part of the county—small, white-faced, and

hornless, are of a very superior shape, and in the flavour of their meat and the fineness of their wool altogether unrivalled.—The system of husbandry pursued in *Monmouthshire* is in general respectable, and a spirit of improvement is visible among the farmers. In the valleys and slopes of the hills, the land is finely chequered with woods, consisting chiefly of beech and oak. Of the cattle, the oxen are large, but the sheep are small, and the horses are of a very inferior kind. Numbers of mules are bred here, where they are much used; and numbers are also imported from France and Spain. Estates are large; but the farms are small, most of them not exceeding £60 of rent.

Midland Districts.] The rural economy of *Nottinghamshire* presents little that is remarkable. The raising of grain for home-consumption and exportation seems chiefly to occupy the attention of the farmers; the rearing of stock and the management of the dairy, though practised in some parts, being on the whole secondary objects. Many wastes have of late been enclosed and brought into profitable cultivation. In the Trent-bank district, the land is occupied under a mixed arable and grass-system: though mostly in the latter, especially near the river. The arable lands produce turnips, clover, wheat, barley and oats: the latter of so remarkably fine quality, that they can be distinguished by persons of skill from any other. In the clays north of the Trent, there is a great intermixture of open field and enclosed townships. Hops form an article of considerable cultivation in the central parts of the county, about Ollerton and Retford, and in most parts of the North Clay. They are stronger than the Kentish hops, but not of so agreeable a flavour. Weld for the dyers is partially cultivated about Scrooby and other places in the northern district. One species of grain called *shegs*, is peculiar to this county. About Allerton and Worksop are many farms of 800, 1,000, and 1,200 acres, let at above £1 per acre; but, in general, farming is practised on a moderate scale, few of the farms exceeding £300 of rent, more being under £100 than above it, and many as low as £20. The practice of leasing is gaining ground, though many of the occupants are still tenants at will; but they feel little insecurity on this account, having held the same farms by this tenure, in multiplied instances, for many generations. The eastern and southern parts of *Derbyshire*, or the Low Peak, are rich and well-cultivated, and the surface is more level. The agriculture of this county is in a progressive state of improvement; but from the barrenness of the soil, and the coldness of the climate, little corn is raised in the northern parts. Camomile is cultivated on an extensive scale, occupying more than 200 acres. Great attention is paid to the breed of cattle; and one of the principal products of the county is cheese, of which above 2,000 tons is sent annually to the London market.—*Staffordshire*, upon the whole, is not remarkable for its agriculture, its industry being rather turned to mines and manufactures. Farms are here of all sizes, from 20 to 500 acres; but the smaller ones are diminishing in number. The produce is wheat, rye, barley, oats, beans, pease, vetches, buck-wheat, hemp, flax, turnips, potatoes, cabbage, rape, clover, trefoil, &c. &c. The grass-lands are of great extent and importance, comprehending all the low land along the courses of the several rivers. On the banks of the Dove, in particular, the land is remarkable for fertility, and is covered with perpetual verdure, the inundations of the river adding greatly to the productiveness of the soil. Irrigation has been much extended, and with the most beneficial effects. The water-meadows at Trentham, belonging to

Lord Stafford, and at Betteley, belonging to Mr Tollet, are upon a great scale. The cattle of the county are generally of the long-horned breed, which has been gradually improving for many years. The sheep are of various breeds,—the gray-faced without horns,—the black-faced horned,—the white-faced without horns,—and the Old and New Leicester which are common on the pasture-grounds of different districts.—Grazing, or breeding and feeding stock, is the great object of the *Leicester* farmer. More than half the land is constantly in pasture; and the other half is maintained in tillage only as subservient to and promoting this other and capital branch of husbandry. Though the principal object of the grazier is to fatten stock for the butcher, the dairy is also in some places attended to here. A fine cheese is made in this county near Melton Mowbray. About 200 tons of cheese are annually sent to Leicester fair; and of 5,000 tons of cheese annually sent down the Trent from the adjacent counties, Leicester contributes at least 1,500, which require to produce it 7,500 dairy-cows. The sheep are of two kinds, the Old and New Leicester. The first are heavy, and full of wool, but large boned, slow to fatten, and coarse in the fleece. The second, called the Dishley—from the name of the place where Mr Bakewell, who introduced them, resided—are distinguished by the opposite qualities, and by all the others which breeders most highly prize. Leicester is also famous for its breed of beautiful black horses, with which the fairs of Ashby, Loughborough, &c. &c., are principally supplied. The swine of Leicestershire are also of a superior breed. Along the banks of the rivers, especially the Soar, the pastures and arable grounds are rich and extensive; and the natural productiveness of the soil has, in most places, been greatly improved by draining and irrigation. In the S.E. and middle parts of the county, are many farms with no tillage at all; but a proportion of each is commonly kept in tillage in the N. and W.—The modes of husbandry pursued in *Rutlandshire* differ according to the soil, and on open or enclosed lands. On the unenclosed lands, the old course of two crops and a fallow is yet followed; except on light soils, where turnips take the place of fallow. On enclosed lands the Norfolk mode of husbandry prevails. On all the light soils, pease are generally the second crop; but on clay-lands there is an intermixture of beans. Farms differ in size, from 15 to 640 acres; but the large farms are few in number. Leases are held for 7 years, and some for 21 years; but the greater part are held only from year to year.—The soil of *Northamptonshire* is various, but on the whole fertile and productive. It consists of strong deep-stapled clay, light thin reddish loam, rich loam with a mixture of gravel, thin-staple light clay, and fen and meadow-land. The air is exceedingly pure, healthy, and favourable to vegetation. Much grain is raised in this county, which is almost wholly agricultural; but grazing is the principal object. There is still much open field and common, which, together with the want of leases—most of the occupants being tenants at will—is a serious obstacle to improvement. Cattle are fed in great numbers, and to an extraordinary size; they are of no particular breed. Dairies are extensive and numerous, and butter is exported to a great amount. About 100,000 sheep are exported annually; they are of three different kinds,—the original breed of the county,—the Dishley,—and an intermediate kind termed the Old improved. Though the system of agriculture is bad, vast quantities of wheat and flour are exported, with oats and beans. Woad is raised in considerable quantities for the dyers.—The soil of *Warwickshire* possesses great variety, and of

course different systems of agriculture prevail. Wheat, barley, oats, pease, beans, vetches, and turnips are usually cultivated; rye, potatoes, and flax occasionally. It is supposed that about 235,000 acres are in permanent meadow and pasture-grass, 205,000 acres of which are pastured with sheep and cattle. The stock is of various breeds, but the long-horned cow is the sort principally bred in the county. The Warwick sheep, of the large polled kind, has been crossed with the Leicester, and a breed has resulted not inferior to that of any county in England. The farms are not in general large; but the system of consolidation seems rapidly growing into favour with the landholders. The principal woodlands are still found in the neighbourhood of its former great forest.—The soil of *Worcestershire* is various: consisting in a great measure of rich sandy loam, and partly in clay, and red marl. The vale of Severn contains 10,000 acres of a deep and rich sediment, deposited from time immemorial by the waters of this river and by its tributary streams. This is a mould peculiarly fertile; and from its small elevation, and consequent warmth and softness, it brings to perfection the different products of the earth from a fortnight to a month earlier than places of greater altitude. *Gloucestershire* is naturally divided into the Hill, the Vale, and the Forest. The *Hill* contains about 200,000 acres; and, though considerably elevated, its climate is by no means severe. The soil is generally a calcareous loam. The land is mostly enclosed with stone-walls, and covered with crops of corn, turnips and grasses. There are considerable woodlands of beech and ash, chiefly on the banks of the Stroud. The *Vale* is divided into Upper and Lower, or the vales of Gloucester and of Berkeley; the former extending from Gloucester upwards, and including that of the Avon or Evesham, and the latter reaching downwards to the Bristol Channel. Each of them contains 50,000 acres, nearly all arable, and enclosed with hedges of elm and willow. The soil is a deep rich loam of uncommon fertility, and the climate the mildest perhaps in England. These vales are chiefly devoted to the produce of the dairy and the rearing of cattle; though in the Upper Vale a considerable quantity of corn is also grown. The celebrated Gloucester cheese is produced in the Upper, and all the double Gloucester in the Under Vale. In the latter district the whole of the land is in grass; and 1,200 tons of cheese are made annually, averaging about 3 cwt. from each cow. The produce of the orchard forms also a capital object with the vale-farmers; and cyder and perry are made in great quantities. The *Forest* comprehends about 40,000 acres, great part of which is occupied by the famous oak and beech-forest of Dean, which has furnished 1,000 tons of ship-timber annually for a course of years.—The husbandry of *Oxfordshire* is not of the most approved character. It is of late beginning to improve; but the system of short leases still hangs heavy upon it. The usual produce is grain of all sorts, turnips, lentils, rape, cabbages, carrots, potatoes, chicory and rhubarb.—In the vale of Aylesbury, in *Buckinghamshire*, vast numbers of oxen are fed, and butter is made in great quantity. Both are exported to the metropolis. This county produces also much corn.—The chief products of *Bedfordshire* are corn and butter.

Eastern District.] *Lincolnshire* presents three great natural divisions: the *Wolds*, the *Heaths*, and the *Fens*. The *Fens*, formerly inundated by the sea, being now protected by great embankments, form one of the richest tracts in the kingdom. The drainage of them has been chiefly accomplished within the last 40 or 50 years; and is still going on. Upwards

of 150,000 acres have in this manner been reclaimed, yielding annually £150,000 exclusive of all expenses. The fertility of the improved lands is in many places extraordinary, owing, it is supposed, to their great impregnation with sea-salt. They are adapted to all ordinary crops, but are chiefly devoted to grazing. In the summer-season they are covered with innumerable flocks and herds, which, from the luxuriance of the pastures, grow to an amazing weight, and whose appearance greatly enlivens the natural dulness of the scenery. In winter, much of the land being overflowed, nothing is to be seen but a wide expanse of water or of ice, varied by numbers of wild fowl. Many of the fens are devoted to the breeding and rearing of geese, which here form a highly valuable stock. Their quills and feathers are sent in immense quantities to the London and other markets. The *Heaths* north and south of Lincoln, extending from the Humber to Grantham, were formerly barren, but are now mostly enclosed and cultivated. Their soil is in general a good sandy loam on a bed of lime-stone; and they command many fine views of the low country. The *Wolds* commence near Spilsby, and extend in a north-westerly direction, to Barton-on-the-Humber. Their soil is a sandy loam upon flinty loam, with a substratum of chalk. Of the crops grown in the various districts, the oats, particularly of the fens, is the most abundant. Rape for feeding sheep and for oil, is raised in the fens; as also woad, onions, and cabbages. On the chalky soils, sainfoin is a common and valuable crop. The cattle are of great size, with large heads and short horns. They are principally fattened for the butcher, the dairy being but little attended to. The sheep are a large-horned breed, with a heavy fleece of coarse long-stapled wool. The breed of horses has been long famous; the best—chiefly blood-horses—are bred on the Wolds of Lincoln. Landed property is variously, and in general minutely divided in this county. The largest estate yields £25,000 a-year. In the Isle of Ancholme, the land is divided among small farmers, who are at the same time proprietors of from 5 to 30 or 40 acres. The farms are also small in the fens; in other parts they vary from 150 to 1,000 acres.—The N. and N.E. parts of *Huntingdon* consist of fens, which are a portion of the midland division of the Bedford Level. In this quarter there are several large *meres* or lakes, of which the largest, Whittlesea, covers an area of 1,570 acres, though not above two feet deep. It abounds, like all other collections of water similarly situated, with wild fowl. The uplands to the south and west were anciently one large forest, peculiarly adapted to the pleasures of the chase, whence the county has its name; and, though no longer a forest, they are still unenclosed and uncultivated. The soil is mostly clay. Along the banks of the Ouse, and the Nen, are extensive tracts of beautiful meadows possessing the richest soil, and displaying the utmost luxuriance of verdure. Husbandry is the sole business of the county, but it is by no means in an advanced state; and though much excellent pasturage is met with, the cattle are of a very inferior breed. It has, however, some celebrated dairies, particularly at the village of Stilton, where the cheese, so well known by its name, is manufacture.—The northern part of *Cambridgeshire* forms the Isle of Ely, which is almost a complete marsh, forming part of the Bedford Level. In these low lands, the towns and villages, built upon elevated spots, appear like islands, and the spires are visible at the distance of many miles. The soil is extremely fertile, and produces luxuriant crops of wheat, oats, and cole-seed. The salt-marshes in the north-west are peculiarly favourable to the growth of corn; but the hopes of the cultivator are often frustrated by

inundations. There are a number of fine dairy-farms, particularly in the valley watered by the Cam, which produce butter of the first quality, and the vicinity of Cottenham is noted for cheese of the most delicious flavour. The aspect of *Norfolk*, though in some places diversified by little swells, and a ridge of high ground stretching northwards from Thetford to the coast, is generally uniform and uninteresting; the landscape often for many miles presenting nothing but a perfect flat, without so much fall as to carry off the water, which frequently inundates the whole country. The soil is not naturally fertile, but has been greatly improved by cultivation. Agriculture is here conducted upon the most improved system, and with great success. Two-thirds of the annual crop is supposed to be barley, for which the lighter soils are peculiarly favourable; and turnips are more generally grown here, than any where else in the kingdom. All the ordinary crops are more or less cultivated, as also mustard, saffron, flax, and hemp. In the fens, fattening cattle is a principal object, and the dairy is much attended to. Most of the cattle fed here are brought from Scotland. From their meagre appearance when imported, they are termed *Scotch runts*; but they thrive in a most extraordinary manner. The native cow is of the Alderney breed, but the Suffolk-polled dun-coloured are now generally introduced. The sheep are a native, hardy, and active breed, well-adapted to the soil and system of husbandry.—*Suffolk* is in general level, and the climate is reckoned the driest in the kingdom. The district stretching along the coast is one of the best-cultivated in England. Besides its arable land, it contains heaths, which afford extensive sheep-walks and marshes. The largest estate in this county does not exceed £9000 a year. Small estates are numerous; and most of them are farmed by the proprietors. The crops are wheat, barley, oats, rye, beans, pease, buck-wheat, cole-seed, turnips, carrots, cabbages, clover, and hemp. The dairies afford excellent butter, and cheese of the skim-milk kind. The Suffolk cows are supposed to be the best milkers in the kingdom. They are all of the hornless, or polled-breed, and of small size, few of them when fattened weighing 50 stone of 14lbs. to the stone. The best yield from 4 to 6 gallons of milk per day. The poor rates in the county of Suffolk, for the last ten years, have exceeded the previous ten years 500 per cent.; and the county rates for the like period, have increased upwards of eight hundred per cent!—The soil of *Hertfordshire* is naturally barren; but the vicinity of the metropolis creating a great demand for its produce, and affording at the same time abundance of manure, it is every where in the highest state of cultivation. Most of the land is in tillage, and it is reckoned the first corn county in England.—*Essex* is level, but in general sufficiently elevated to be dry and arable. On the coast, which is much broken and indented by arms of the sea, there are extensive salt-marshes which are protected by embankments from the inroads of the ocean. The soil is various, but generally good: producing grain of the best quality, particularly wheat, which with that of Kent, always obtains the highest price in the London market. Among rare plants cultivated, are those of coriander, teasel, and carraway. Hops are also grown, and various other horticultural plants and roots. The parish of Epping is famous for its cream and butter, the last of which is mostly sent to the metropolis. Almost the sole business of the Middlesex agriculturists is to provide articles of necessity for the metropolis, in the vicinity of which the land is mostly rented by cowkeepers, gardeners and nurserymen. The cows kept for the supply of London are chiefly of the Holderness kind: large, with short horns. They are fed on grains, turnips, meadow-hay,

cabbages, and tares. In the immediate vicinity of London, 10,000 acres are employed as kitchen-gardens, a fourth part of which is in Middlesex. The average annual produce per acre, amounts in value to £200, £120 of which is calculated to be profit. The fruit-gardens in this county, exclusive of those attached to private houses, occupy 3000 acres, and their annual value is calculated at £300,000. The nursery-grounds occupy about 1500 acres; and the occupants raise exotics in such perfection, that they are sent all over the continent. Much of the ground is laid down in meadow and pasture-land, and from the application of manure, is very productive. What may be called the common agriculture of the county, is not in a state of great improvement. The farms are rather small than otherwise, and the rents, according to local circumstances, vary from 10s. to £10 per acre.

South-eastern District.] The aspect of *Kent* is beautifully diversified, and the scenery is in many places incomparably rich. Agriculture is the great business of this county; and owing to the mildness of the climate,—the fertility of the soil,—the facilities of intercourse,—the law of *gravel kind*, by which landed property is divided equally among all the sons in a family,—and, above all, the neighbourhood of the metropolis, which creates a ceaseless demand,—it is prosecuted with great ability and with extraordinary success. Besides the usual agricultural products, of which the wheat is peculiarly excellent, Kent produces hops which are in great repute with the porter-brewers of London, and fruits, especially cherries, filberts, and apples; also woad and madder, samphire, hemp, sainfoin, canary-seed, radish, spinach, mustard, cabbage, and other esculents. At the S.E. angle of the county lies a level track, termed *the Romney marsh*, extending westward. The marshes are entirely devoted to the breeding of sheep and fattening of cattle.—In agriculture *Surrey* is behind several other counties. In the neighbourhood of the metropolis, and upon the sandy loams near the Thames, garden-pease and beans are extensively cultivated. Carrots, clover, sainfoin, and hops, also occupy much attention; and more than 350 acres are employed in rearing peppermint, lavender, camomile, aniseed, liquorice, and poppies.—The soil of *Sussex* is in many places sterile, and in others so fertile as to produce abundant crops of wheat for 4 and 5 years in succession. In the western part of the county, orchards are numerous. It is distinguished for its breed of cattle, which is allowed to be equal to any in the kingdom. Its sheep are also celebrated. Their wool is little, if at all, inferior to the Hereford sheep; and their hardiness is demonstrated by their healthiness amid the severe storms to which in winter they are exposed upon their native hills. The largest estate in *Sussex* does not exceed £7,500 per annum, and most of the proprietors hold their land in their own occupation.

Southern Counties.] *Hampshire* is distinguished as an agricultural county, though its sea-coast has rendered it also in a considerable degree commercial. About one-half of the land is devoted to pasturage; one-fourth is arable; and the remainder is occupied with extensive forests of oak, and large tracts of waste and open heath. The breeding of cattle is a particular object here, and the feeding of hogs and sheep.—An irregular range of hills divides *Wiltshire* into two divisions. Of these continuous, *South Wiltshire* may be regarded as almost one vast sheep-farm: the greater part of its extensive downs, and many portions of its vales, being devoted to the rearing and feeding of that animal. The vales around Salisbury display rich meadow and corn-lands. *North Wiltshire* has the aspect of a

perfect flat, the few declivities being so gradual as to be almost imperceptible. It contains many extensive tracts of rich pasture-land, especially on the banks of the Lower Avon, the Thames and their tributary streams. Irrigation is practised more extensively in South Wiltshire than any where else in England,—a water meadow being a necessary appendage to every farm; in the northern division, pasturing cattle, and the dairy, are the sole objects of attention.—*Dorsetshire* is in general bare of shelter; and there are many commons and downs on which sheep are pastured to the number, it is supposed, of 800,000. Irrigation of land is here also carried to a great extent, and with the happiest effect.

South-western Counties.] *Somerset* possesses every gradation of surface, from the lofty mountain and the barren moor, to the rich and cultivated vale, the marsh and fen. The low lands consist mostly of rich alluvial loam, sand, and clay, and of depositions from the sea, which, if preserved from sea and land-inundations, are highly productive, but when neglected degenerate into unfruitful marshes. Possessing a climate mild and genial, this county stands high in reputation for its agricultural produce. The plains are remarkable for their luxuriant herbage, and furnish not only a sufficiency for the consumption of the county, but also a considerable surplus for the markets of London, Bristol, and Salisbury, which it supplies annually with fat oxen, scarcely inferior to the Lincolnshire for size.—A large portion of *Devonshire* is open and uncultivated. The wild and barren tract, called Dartmoor, occupies not less than 53,644 acres. A considerable portion of the surface, however, consists of fine vales, which are laid out in orchards, or cultivated in the first style of improvement. Much cyder is made here; and a liquor peculiar to the county, called *white ale*, of a highly intoxicating quality, is brewed at Kingsbridge. Property is greatly divided; there are few extensive farms, and most of the owners are resident upon their estates.—Comparatively little attention is paid to agriculture in *Cornwall*, and most of its operations are conducted in a very rude manner. A proportion of the arable land is planted with potatoes, the cultivation of which is well-understood. In the neighbourhood of Penzance, two crops of this valuable root are produced in a year. The principal manures are sand, sea-weed, damaged pilchards, and the refuse salt used in curing them, mixed with lime and earth-sand. Nearly 200,000 acres are unenclosed and waste, affording only a scanty subsistence to miserable flocks of goats and sheep.

Wales.] In Wales, farms are for the most part very small. Over nearly the whole of Wales, the sheep are singularly small, with horns, white faces, and white legs; but the influence of different kinds of manufactures is visible on the flocks of the principality, especially on those of Montgomery, which are affected by the Welshpool market for flannels. In North Wales the stock is light: 5 acres supporting not more than a single sheep, exclusive of cattle. In South Wales the sheep are more numerous. Goats are here very numerous.

SECT. II.—MANUFACTURES.

Northern Counties.] The manufactures of *Northumberland* are chiefly confined to the town of Newcastle, and the vicinity of the Tyne. They consist mostly of those coarser manufactures derived from or connected with the coal-trade and mines: such as ship-building, soaperies, glass-works, potteries, iron-founderies, and various other works of a similar kind. Its trade consists chiefly in the export of coals, lead, wrought-iron, grind-

stones, pottery, glass, &c.—The manufactures of *Cumberland* are neither numerous nor extensive. They consist chiefly of gingham, calicoes, corduroys, and other cotton-goods, sail-cloth, carpets, paper, pottery, and glass-bottles. The harbours are few, considering the great extent of coast, but commerce is rapidly improving. The chief ports are Whitehaven, Workington, Maryport, and Harrington.—Manufactures have made little progress in *Westmoreland*. Its wool is wrought up in the manufactures of Kendal, and of Bradford in Yorkshire; part of it is also wrought into knit-stockings, about Kirby-Stephen, Orton, and Ravenstonedale.—Manufactories are conducted on a large scale in *Durham*. About 11,000 tons of salt are made yearly from a salt spring near Birsley. At Smallwell and Winlaton are foundries and forges,—the former producing anchors, mooring chains, &c. &c. the latter files, edge-tools, and all such hardware as is necessary for artificers. A manufactory for sword-blades has been long established at Shottly. There are several establishments for the fabrication of copperas and sal-ammoniac, on the rivers Tyne and Wear. Ship-building is carried on to a considerable extent, together with the manufacture of cordage. Glass, pottery, and other goods, are made both for home-consumpt and exportation. The greater part of the exports of the county are made from Sunderland, which possesses from 50,000 to 60,000 tons of shipping.—The East Riding of *Yorkshire* furnishes wool in large quantities to the West Riding clothiers; and great numbers of horses are purchased at the York and Howden fairs by the London dealers. Hull is its grand emporium of foreign trade. Its chief manufactures are established at Wansford, near Driffield, for carpets and spinning cotton. The West Riding of Yorkshire may safely be pronounced one of the greatest manufacturing districts in the world. The manufactures carried on at Leeds, Wakefield, Bradford, Halifax, Huddersfield, and places adjacent, comprise broad and narrow cloths of all qualities, shalloons, calimancoes, and flannels, with every kind of woollen goods. From Sheffield, cutlery and plated goods are exported to all parts of the globe. The finer articles of Sheffield cutlery have been pronounced equal in polish and hardness to the finest Indian *woots*.—The manufactures of *Lancashire* are most extensive and various, consisting of silk, woollen, linen, hats, stockings, pins, needles, nails, watch-tools and movements, tobacco and snuff, earthenware, porcelain, paper, &c. But the cotton-trade especially has risen here with a rapidity and to an extent beyond all example. Of this vast manufacture, Manchester is the principal seat. Thence it spreads on all sides, to the S. and E. into Cheshire and Yorkshire, but especially to the N. and W. over the greatest part of Lancashire,—extending from Furness to Derby on the one hand, and from Liverpool to Halifax on the other. A variety of other employments, as those of bleachers, dyers, printers' tool-makers, engine and machine-makers, &c. depend for their existence on this manufacture; and there are also in this county large works for smelting iron and copper, for blowing common and casting plate-glass, and for manufacturing white lead, lamp black, vitriolic acid, &c.

Counties bordering on Wales.] In various parts of *Cheshire*, manufactures are carried on extensively in silk, cotton, and linen, ribbons, thread, buttons, and tanning leather.—The exports are lead, calamine, cast-iron, copper-plates, brass, salt, and cheese.—The principal manufactures of *Shropshire* are the ironworks in the coal and iron-district east of Shrewsbury, chiefly at Ketley, Oakengates, and in Colebrook Dale, which has also potteries and a coal-tar work. Brosely has a manufacture of garden-pots, and excellent tobacco-pipes. Caughley has a china-manufactory of great

excellence; and Coalport furnishes china of all sorts, and also Queen's or Wedgwood's ware. This county has also several mills for dying woollen cloths, and some linen and cotton-manufactories. Ironstone and coal are abundant in *Monmouthshire*, and numerous iron-works have been erected here. Limestone, breccia for millstones, and valuable building-stone, are also abundant. Flannels, coarse cloths, stockings, and knit-caps, are manufactured to a considerable extent.

Midland District.] Nottinghamshire has been long famed for its manufactures, of which stockings form the staple. These of thread and British laces have also been long carried on upon an extensive scale. The cotton-trade from Manchester has been widely extended, and is still increasing. There are also worsted-mills, silk-mills, &c.; manufactories of sailcloth, starch, and coarse red earthenware. Nottinghamshire, being a kind of thoroughfare for the neighbouring counties, has a very extensive and lucrative commerce.—The manufactures of *Leicestershire* are chiefly and almost entirely those of its great staple, wool; they consist in the combing and spinning of wool, and making it into stockings. The exports consist of wool, worsted stockings, hats, lace, cattle, sheep, and cheese.—A large proportion of the inhabitants of *Derbyshire* are occupied in trade and manufactures, which are conducted on a large scale, and consist of iron, woollen, linen, cotton, and silk. Cutting and polishing marble and spar, for useful and ornamental purposes, is here a constant source of employment to a numerous class of artisans.—The clays, which are found of almost every variety in *Staffordshire*, form the basis of one of the most important manufactures in the kingdom, that of earthen ware, for which Staffordshire is particularly famous. The potteries are carried on in a district near Newcastle-under-Lyne. This district occupies an extent of about 10 square miles, and, though naturally barren, contains a number of populous towns, in which the works are carried on. The soil contains almost every variety of clays, besides covering strata of coal, rich and easily worked. From these natural advantages, the pottery business was early begun here, (at least two centuries back) but the improvements of the late Mr Wedgewood have brought the article to so much perfection, that it has become of national importance. Glass is also a flourishing manufacture here. Manufactories of iron and steel of all descriptions are numerous and extensive. Tin and brass are also among its manufactures, with tapes, cotton, and silk to a considerable extent. Tobacco and snuff-boxes, boots, shoes, and hats, are manufactured in Darlaston, Stafford, Newcastle, and Burton, on a large scale. Trade and manufactures have been greatly advanced in this county by the extensive system of inland navigation, which connects it not only with the metropolis, but with the Severn, the Mersey, the Humber, and the three corresponding ports of Bristol, Liverpool, and Hull.—The manufactures of *Northamptonshire* are inconsiderable, consisting chiefly in the making of shoes, lace, and woollen stuffs. There is a manufactory of whips at Daventry, and one of considerable extent for making silk-hose. The trade of the county is pretty extensive, being greatly facilitated by the canals which have lately been formed in this district, and by which it communicates with every part of the country.—*Warwickshire* is conspicuous for commercial enterprise, and for the spirit with which manufactures are cultivated. These last are of various descriptions. Those of hardware at Birmingham are celebrated throughout Europe. In the city of Coventry and neighbourhood, not less than 16,000 people are employed in the manufacture of ribbons; and for watches, the same place takes the lead even of London. Kenilworth is

famous for horn-combs; Warwick for hosiery, calicoes, and other cotton-goods. In other places there are flax-manufactures, and much linen-yarn is spun. Alcester employs 900 persons in making needles.—*Worcestershire* exports gloves, Kidderminster goods, china and glassware, nails, and the smaller articles of iron-work, as well as bar and sheet-iron.—The abundance of coal has drawn extensive iron-works to the Forest of *Gloucestershire*, which, though they are in the midst of ironstone, are yet supplied from the richer ore of Lancashire. Tinplate is made at Fromilade, and edge-tools, brass-wire, wire-cards, pins and nails. Spanish wool is manufactured into superfine broad cloth in a district of which the town of Stroud is the centre. The waters of the Stroud are here supposed to possess peculiar properties for dyeing scarlet, blue, and black. Thin worsted stuffs and carpets are made at Cirencester, and stockings at Tewkesbury.—The chief manufactures of *Buckinghamshire* are lace and paper. Most of the poorer class of females are employed in lace-making, which, with plaiting straw, employs nearly all the working females in the county.—The manufactures of *Bedfordshire* are confined to the plaiting of straw, and making thread-lace, in which three-fourths of the female population are employed.

South-eastern District.] *Kent* has few manufactures, and these mostly of the coarser kind. The clothing-trade, formerly extensive, is now nearly annihilated, and silk, which was long manufactured at Canterbury, has given place to cotton. At Maidstone and Dover are extensive paper-mills; at Deptford and the Isle of Grain, salt-works. There are large copper-works at Deptford and Whitestapple; and various iron-furnaces in the Weald bordering on Sussex. Gunpowder is manufactured at Deptford and Faversham; calicoes are printed and bleached at Craigford; and sacking and hop-bagging are made in various parts of the county. At Canterbury there is one of the largest flour-mills in the kingdom. The various dock-yards at Deptford, Woolwich, Chatham, &c. employ numerous hands, and ship-building is also carried on at different parts of the coast.

Southern Counties.] Cotton, sacking, paper, and blankets, are manufactured in different places of *Berkshire*; and at Temple-Mills there are extensive works for the manufacture of copper, where it is converted into sheathings, ship-bolts, pans, and stills. The ore is carried from Anglesea to Swansea to be smelted; and thence in barges to the mills, where from 600 to 1,000 tons are manufactured yearly.—The manufactures of *Wiltshire* are valuable and extensive. Salisbury is famous for flannels and fancy-woollens. Excellent steel-goods are also produced here. Broad cloths, kerseymeres, and fancy-cloths, are the principal produce of Bradford, Trowbridge, Warminster, Westbury, Melkham, Chippenham, and all the adjacent towns and villages. Fustians and thicksets are made at Albourn; and Swindown is famous for its manufactory of gloves. A considerable quantity of hemp is grown in *Dorsetshire*, and manufactured into twine, cordage, netting, sacking, and sailcloth. More than 10,000 people are employed in these manufactures. At Lodors, and some other places, young girls are employed in the weaving of sailcloth, and many of the women, along the coast towards Weymouth, fabricate strong nets for the Newfoundland fishery. A kind of coarse white woollen cloth or flannel, called swanskin or swansdown, is made at Starminster-Newton; and a number of persons of both sexes are employed in the manufacture of silk. However inconsiderable the manufacture may appear at first sight, the females of this county derive much profit from the working of shirt-buttons.

South-western Counties.] The manufactures of *Somersetshire* are considerable, consisting of stockings, woollen cloth, coarse linen, such as dowlas and tick, gloves, &c. The woollen manufactures of *Devonshire*, once considerable, have now greatly declined. Serge is woven at Totness, chiefly by women; and coarse stuffs are sent thence to be dyed at Exeter. Many females of the lower classes are employed in making bone-lace. An iron-foundery, and works for cutlery, are established upon a large scale at Tavistock. Ship-building is carried on at the various ports, particularly at that great naval depot, Plymouth.—*Cornwall* can boast of few manufactures except its metals. These few are cloths, nails for ship-building, carpets, crucibles, and paper. Its exports are tin, copper, moorstone, china stone, fish, cattle, and wheat.

Eastern District.] The manufactures of *Lincolnshire* are inconsiderable. There are several great fairs in the county; that of Horncastle is especially celebrated for the number and quality of its horses.—Woollen manufactures were once extensive in *Essex*; but they are now rather on the decline. Excepting in the metropolis, and its immediate vicinity, few manufactures are carried on to any great extent in *Middlesex*. Within the metropolis nearly every kind of British goods is manufactured, especially the finer articles of upholstery, jewellery, and the whole of those which may be comprehended under the general name of articles of luxury. Large calico-printing manufactories are established near the metropolis; and, on the Lea, there are mills for making sheet-lead. Straw-plaiting employs many women and girls; and the oyster-fishery employs a great number of the inhabitants. About 200 vessels of from 8 to 50 tons are engaged in dredging, near the mouths of the Crouch, the Colne, the Blackwater, &c. and 20,000 bushels are annually taken.—The manufactures of *Hertfordshire* are inconsiderable. Plaiting of straw is common among the women and girls; the trade is almost confined to malt. The town of Ware exports more malt than any town in England, and it always finds a preference in the London market.

Wales.] Flannels are the great article of Welsh manufacture. In Flintshire, Glamorganshire, and Monmouthshire, the mines afford employment to a considerable number of hands.

CHAP. VI.—CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS.

To describe particularly all the large towns of England, would extend this article much beyond the limits to which we must confine it. A slight notice of the most important of them is all that we can here attempt.

CITY OF LONDON.] London, the metropolis of England, and consequently of the British dominions, claims our first attention. It consists of three cities, each of them large and opulent, but so united as to form one great capital: the city of London, properly so called,—the city of Westminster,—and the borough or city of Southwark. London is situated upon both banks of the Thames, about 60 miles from the sea. Its dimensions have been differently estimated. According to the most recent accounts, its length, from Hyde-park corner on the W., to Poplar on the E., is about 7, and its greatest breadth 5 miles. Its superficial extent has been estimated at nearly 30 square miles.

Name and History.] London is supposed to have derived its name from the Gothic *lun*, 'a grove,' and *den*, 'a town.' Others are of opinion that

the name denotes 'the town upon the waters;' and Welsh antiquarians derive it from their own *llyn*, 'a lake,' and *dis*, 'a town.'—Tacitus informs us that, about the year 61, London was a place of great trade. It became the metropolis of England in the reign of Egbert, about the year 819. During succeeding reigns its citizens obtained many important charters from the English monarchs. In the year 1348 it was devastated by a dreadful pestilence. A vast number of its inhabitants perished, about the year 1518, of a disease called the sweating sickness. On the accession of James I., and likewise on that of Charles I., London was visited by pestilence; but the most dreadful visitation of this kind occurred in 1665, when the plague carried off 106,000 souls. To this succeeded another tremendous calamity in 1666, when above 13,000 houses were destroyed by fire. Its history since that period partakes closely of that of the kingdom at large.

Municipal Government.] The city is divided into 26 wards; and governed by a lord mayor, 25 aldermen, and a common council consisting of 236 members. The *mayor* is annually elected from among the aldermen who have served the office of sheriff, by the liverymen of the several companies assembled in Guildhall. The liverymen name two, of whom one—generally the elder—is chosen by the court of aldermen. The mayor, when elected, is presented to the chancellor for his approbation, and is afterwards sworn into his office by the barons of exchequer at Westminster. He holds a daily court at the mansion-house, for determining such differences as may arise among the citizens; and eight or nine times yearly he acts as chief judge of gaol-delivery of Newgate, for London and the county of Middlesex. His jurisdiction extends over the whole of the city, and several parts of the neighbourhood.—Subordinate to the mayor is the *court of aldermen*. The members of this court were formerly elected annually, but now hold their offices during life. Each of them exercises his authority as a magistrate in his own ward, besides being a member of that court to which is committed the government of the city at large. The court which an alderman holds within his own ward, is called his *wardmote*. Every alderman is a justice of the peace. He who refuses the office when elected forfeits £500.—The *common council* consists of members who represent the citizens of London. These representatives were formerly chosen from the several companies of the city; at present, a certain number is chosen by each district, which for that purpose is divided into precincts. The number of precincts is 236, of which each elects one common councillor. The common council cannot assemble without a summons from the mayor; but, when required by six members of that court, he is obliged to call it together. No law made for the government of the city is valid till it be confirmed by the authority of the common council.—To assist the mayor in the discharge of his office, a *recorder* is chosen by the mayor and aldermen. This officer makes all addresses in the name of the city. He is generally an eminent lawyer. His salary, which was originally about £10 annually, is now £1,000. In the city-courts he takes precedence or all except the mayor, and such as at any time have been mayors.—The *chamberlain* is chosen annually by the liverymen; but the annual election is mere ceremony, since he who is once elected, unless guilty of some great crime, generally holds the office during life. He has the keeping of the city-accounts; and is, in effect, the treasurer of the corporation.—The other officers connected with the municipality of London, are a common sergeant, a town-clerk, a city-remembrancer, a sword-bearer, a common

crier, and a water-bailiff, with several others whose enumeration would be tedious.

Commerce.] With regard to commerce, no city in the world can be compared with London, the great centre of British commerce. The Thames affords a convenient and safe harbour, and the concourse of vessels is immense. The manufactures of London comprehend almost every thing which human ingenuity has yet invented; nearly every article is made here in a high state of perfection, and many articles with unrivalled excellence. The trade of London employs about 3,500 ships, the cargoes entering the port being annually not less than 13,500. On an average, 1,100 ships are in the river at one time; together with 3,419 barges and other small craft employed in lading and unlading them, 2,288 barges and other craft engaged in the inland trade, and 3,000 wharries or small boats for passengers. To this active scene which the port of London exhibits, are to be added about 8,000 watermen actually employed in navigating the wharries and craft, 4,000 labourers lading and unlading ships, and 1,200 revenue officers constantly doing duty on the river, besides the crews of the several vessels. This unrivalled scene occupies a space of six miles on the Thames: from two miles above to four miles below London Bridge and Limehouse.

Population.] The total number of persons in the metropolis, as ascertained by the census of 1821, was 1,274,800; being an increase of 224,800 since 1811. And supposing the population to have increased in the same ratio since, it must at present (1830) be little short of 1,500,000. The following table exhibits the progress of the population of the British metropolis since the year 1700:

THE METROPOLIS.	POPULATION.				
	1700.	1750.	1801.	1811.	1821.
1. City of London <i>within</i> the Walls,	139,300	87,000	78,000	57,700	58,400
2. City of London <i>without</i> the Walls,	69,000	57,300	56,300	68,000	72,000
3. City and Liberties of Westminster,	130,000	152,000	165,000	168,600	189,400
4. Out-Parishes within the Bills of Mortality,	326,900	357,600	477,700	593,700	730,700
5. Parishes <i>not</i> within the Bills of Mortality,	9,150	22,350	123,000	162,000	224,300
6. Total of the Metropolis,	674,350	676,250	900,000	1,050,000	1,274,800

The health of the metropolis is said to have been in a gradual state of improvement since the middle of the 17th century. It is now 163 years since the plague has shown itself in London; and three frightful diseases which used to be epidemic there—the bloody flux, ague, and sea-scurvy—have ceased for above a century to be so. In 1750 the average rate of mortality in London was one in 21; in 1821, according to Dr Birkbeck, it was not more than one in 40. London it would thus appear is as healthy as the most salubrious parts of the South of France: for the number of deaths is not greater in comparison to the population, than in the department of Herault, of which Montpellier is the capital.

Calculation of London Consumption.] The fruits and vegetables consumed in the metropolis are principally produced in the environs; and it is calculated that there are upwards of 6,000 acres of ground cultivated as

gardens, within 12 miles of the metropolis, giving employment to 30,000 persons in winter, and three times that number in summer. It is supposed that £1,000,000 is annually expended in fruits and vegetables by the inhabitants of this vast city. Numerous calculations have been made of the annual consumption of animal food in the metropolis; but this is not easily ascertained, as, although we may know the number of cattle and sheep, yet we have no means of learning the weight. Of the quantity of cattle sold in Smithfield market, we have the most accurate returns, and find, that in the year 1822, the numbers were, 149,885 beasts, 24,609 calves, 1,507,096 sheep, and 20,020 pigs. This does not, however, by any means form the total consumed in London, as large quantities of meat in carcases, particularly pork, are daily brought from the counties round the metropolis. The total value of the cattle sold in Smithfield is calculated at £8,500,000. The consumption of wheat amounts to 1,000,000 of quarters, each containing 8 Winchester bushels, annually; of this, four-fifths are supposed to be made into bread, being a consumption of 64 millions of quartern loaves every year in the metropolis alone. Until within the last few years, the price of bread was regulated by assize; and it may afford some idea of the vast amount of money paid for the staff of life, when it is stated that an advance of one farthing on the quartern loaf formed an aggregate increase in expense for this article alone, of upwards of £13,000 per week. About 10,000 cows are kept in the vicinity of London. The annual consumption of butter in London amounts to about 21,000,000lbs., and that of cheese to 26,000,000lbs. The money paid annually for milk is supposed to amount to £1,250,000. The quantity of poultry annually consumed is supposed to cost between £70,000 and £80,000. That of game depends upon the fruitfulness of the season. There is nothing, however, more surprising than the sale of rabbits. One salesman in Leadenhall market, during a considerable portion of the year, is said to sell 14,000 rabbits weekly. The way in which he disposes of them is, by employing between 150 and 300 men and women, who hawk them through the streets. There are on an average annually brought to Billingsgate market 2,500 cargoes of fish of 40 tons each, and about 20,000 tons by land-carriage. The quantity of coals consumed is about 1,200,000 chaldrons of 36 bushels, or a ton and a half, to each chaldron; of porter and ale 2,000,000 barrels, each containing 36 gallons; 11,000,000 gallons of spirits and compounds; and 65,000 pipes of wine.¹² It appears that

¹² The population of London exceeds that of Paris by about a third; and yet comparing the quantity of articles of food consumed by each of these cities, a very disproportioned excess is observable in the former. The number of head of cattle sold annually at Smithfield is double that which enters Paris; and the quantity of sheep and lambs necessary to supply the wants of the population of London is three-fourths more than what suffices for the inhabitants of Paris. Positive data are wanting on which to establish a comparison with regard to the respective consumption of grain and vegetables. But on calculations which cannot be far from the truth, it appears that the consumption of Paris is the greater.

The following comparative tables of the consumption of wine, beer, and articles of luxury, in Britain and France, are exceedingly curious and important:

		Britain.	France.
Sugar (1824)	. . . lbs.	448,000,000	128,000,000
Tea (average)	. . . do.	22,750,000	195,000
Coffee (1824)	. . . do.	8,100,000	20,100,000
Tobacco (do.)	. . . do.	16,900,000	7,200,000
Wine (do.)	. . . Old Gal.	6,210,000	700,000,000
Spirits (1826)	Foreign 3,960,000 } do.	28,020,000	5,770,000
Home	. . . 24,060,000 }		
Beer (1826)	. . . Ale Galls.	420,000,000	155,000,000

the quantity of water required for the daily supply of the inhabitants of the metropolis, and for the use of the various manufactories, amounts to about 29,000,000 gallons, or 4,650,000 cubic feet, the greater portion of which is derived from the Thames. It would seem, from the many complaints which have recently been made, that the quality of the Thames water is bad. When free from extraneous substances, the water of that river is indeed in a state of considerable purity: containing only a moderate quantity of saline contents, and those of a kind which cannot be supposed to render it unfit for domestic purposes, or injurious to the health. But as it approaches the metropolis it becomes loaded with a quantity of filth, which renders it disgusting to the senses, and improper to be employed in the preparation of food. The greatest part of this additional matter appears to be only mechanically suspended in it, and separates by mere rest. It requires, however, a considerable length of time to allow of the complete separation; while, on account of its peculiar texture, and comminuted state, it is disposed to be again diffused through the water by a slight degree of agitation. The water is therefore in the purest state at low tide, and most loaded with extraneous matter at half-ebb. It would appear, however, that a very considerable portion, if not the whole of this extraneous matter, may be removed by filtration through sand, and still more effectually by charcoal and sand.

Edifices.] A bare enumeration of the principal edifices in London would occupy much room; we subjoin a few observations concerning the most remarkable of them, in a foot-note.^M

In order to come to correct calculations, we must always take into account the numerical amount of the population of the two countries. In the following table is therefore calculated what the consumption is for one million of inhabitants in each:

		For one million.	
		Of Englishmen.	Of Frenchmen.
Sugar	lbs.	22,400,000	4,270,000
Tea	do.	1,137,000	6,500
Coffee	do.	405,000	670,000
Tobacco	do.	845,000	278,000
Wine	Old Galls.	310,000	23,300,000
Spirits	do.	1,400,000	190,000
Beer	Ale Galls.	21,000,000	5,170,000

^M *Bridges.*] London bridge was founded between 993 and 1016. It was of wood, and about 1136 it was burnt down. In 1163, it was rebuilt of wood; and between 1176 and 1209 it was rebuilt of stone. At this time it was founded on strong piles; its length being 915 feet, and its height 44 feet. Its breadth was no less than 70 feet; but the passage was so much contracted by houses built on each side, that its width was not more than 23 feet. The sterlings, constructed for the purpose of securing the piers, so much contracted the space for the water between them, that at certain periods of the tide, each arch contained a species of cataract, which rendered the passage so dangerous, that it occasioned the loss of many thousands of lives. To remedy these inconveniences, several acts of parliament were passed, authorizing the citizens to make the necessary alterations, and granting them a sum of money towards defraying the expense. In consequence of these acts, several repairs and alterations were executed some years ago upon this important structure. But, notwithstanding these and other alterations, the bridge was still far from being either beautiful or convenient. A new and magnificent structure, 920 feet in length, has recently been erected. The new bridge consists of 5 arches, of which the central span is 150 feet. It was commenced on the 15th of March, 1824, and finished on the 19th of November, 1828. The material employed is granite.—*Westminster bridge* was begun in 1738, and finished in 1750. The expense of erection, amounting to £389,000, was defrayed by parliament. The structure is magnificent. It has 13 large arches and 2 of inferior dimensions. The arch in the centre is 76 feet wide, and the arches on each side continually decrease 4 feet. The width of the Thames at this place is 1,223 feet. The breadth of the passage is 44 feet, part of which, on each side, is occupied by a pavement for foot-passengers. The balustrade is beautiful, and has places of shelter from rain.—The appearance of *Blackfriars' bridge* is very different from that of Westminster. The nature of the ground on each side of the river rendered it necessary to make the arches elliptical. It was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770. The expense of building—£152,840—was defrayed by a toll on passengers.—*Waterloo bridge* is a noble ornament of

It is impossible for a person who reflects at all to visit London without being deeply impressed. It takes indeed some time to gather up the different parts that compose the idea of London, and so to receive the full weight of the conception; nor is it easy for every eye—for a 'modern Athenian's' at least—to reconcile itself to the brick and plaster-streets and stuccoed

the metropolis. The view of the Surrey hills, and the fine expanse of country that it opens from the Strand, is delightful and surprising; and the effect is not a little increased by the continuity of houses along the Strand, to the bridge. All its arches, which are elliptical, are of an equal size; and the road across it is thus made quite level. The style of its architecture is plain, but the effect is noble from its simple grandeur.—The length within the abutments is 1,242 feet; the length of the road, supported on brick arches, on the Surrey side of the river, 1,250 feet; the length on the London side, 400 feet; and the total length from the Strand, where the building begins, to the spot in Lambeth where it falls to the level of the road, 2,890 feet. The width within the balustrades is 42 feet; the width of the pavement on each side 7 feet; and the width of the road for horses and carriages 28 feet. The span of each arch is 120 feet; and the thickness of each pier 20 feet; and the clear water-way under the nine arches 1,080 feet. The whole of the outside courses of the bridge is Cornish granite, except the balustrades, which are of Aberdeen granite. It has four toll-bridges, neat Doric structures; and the turnstiles—which admit of only one person passing at a time—touch some machinery which communicates with a clock locked up in an oak box in each toll-house, by looking at which, the number of persons who have passed in the course of the day, is directly seen.—*Vauxhall bridge* is an elegant iron structure of 9 arches; it has a beautiful appearance, and the whole expense of building was within £150,000.—*Southwark bridge* is also of iron, and has only 3 arches. The centre arch is 240 feet span, being the largest arch in the world; the two side-arches are 210 feet each.

The Tunnel.] One of the most singular and extraordinary undertakings recorded in the annals of art, was the attempt to open a communication between Wapping and Rotherhithe, by means of a tunnel, 1,100 feet in length, which was actually carried past the middle of the river, by its ingenious architect Mr Brummel, but has been filled up with mud and water by the breaking in of the river. Mr Brummel is yet sanguine of success, provided a grant could be obtained from government for the completion of the work; but it is the opinion of several engineers, that the interval between the present extent of the works and the north bank of the river, is nearly all composed of loose shingle and black mud, through which a tunnel could not be carried.

The Monument.] That structure commonly known by the name of the monument, stands near the north end of London bridge. It is a fluted column of the Doric order. It was erected under the superintendence of Sir Christopher Wren, in commemoration of the dreadful conflagration which took place in the city in 1666. The height of the column is 202 feet, the diameter 15 feet. It is hollow, and contains a stair leading to the top, which represents an urn of fire, and commands an extensive view of the city and surrounding country. The western side of the base is adorned with an allegorical representation, in high relief, of the destruction and renovation of the city. The other sides have inscriptions. The whole fabric is of Portland stone, and is said already to exhibit evident marks of decay; a circumstance, by some attributed to a defect in its erection,—by others, to the continual shaking of its foundation by carriages.

The Tower.] The tower is an edifice remarkable rather for what it contains, than for its strength or exterior appearance. It is said to have been begun by William I.; and has, since his time, received many additions from succeeding monarchs. The lion's tower contains generally an extensive collection of wild beasts. The mint comprehends nearly one-third of the tower, and has houses for all the officers connected with the coinage. The white tower erected by William I. is filled with arms and warlike instruments, and such models of them as have, at various times, been presented to government. Near the S.W. angle of the white tower is the Spanish armoury; so called, from its being the repository of the spoils of the armada. The grand storehouse contains several large apartments filled with arms, so ingeniously arranged by Harris, a common gunsmith, that at one glance, may be seen arms for 80,000 men. To the eastward of the white tower, stands the horse-armory, a plain edifice of brick, containing such articles as are of use in arming cavalry. In this edifice is a room in which are shown images of many of the ancient kings and great men of England; some of them on horseback, and decorated in that armour, which, during their lives, they are said to have worn.—To the eastward of the grand storehouse, in a dark room of stone, are deposited the English regalia, or royal jewels. In this place is shown the imperial crown with which the British monarchs are crowned; and with which, it is said, the kings of England have been crowned since the time of Edward the Confessor; an assertion which may be justly controverted, since, in the time of the commonwealth, the crown, as well as the greater part of the regalia, was sold. The crown now shown, seems to be that made for Charles II. after the restoration. Here, too, are shown the globe of gold put into the king's hand at his coronation; a sceptre of gold used on the same occasion; another sceptre with a dove on its top, the emblem of peace; St Edward's golden staff; the

pillasters of London, after the rock-built strength and marble solidity of Edinburgh. But the overflow of wealth,—the monuments of power on every side,—and, above all, that infinite current of population pouring along a thousand streets, give London a sort of awfulness which no other place can pretend to, and which stamps her the metropolis,—the royal city.

pointless sword of mercy; with the swords of temporal and spiritual justice, all carried before the king at his coronation; the crown of state worn by the king in parliament; the crown of the Prince of Wales; the crown, globe, and sceptre, worn by Mary, queen to William III.; the ivory sceptre made for the queen of James II.; the golden spurs, and bracelets for the wrists, worn at the coronation; the golden eagle, containing the holy oil with which the king is anointed; and the golden spoon into which the oil is poured by the bishop; a gilt silver font, in which the members of the royal family are christened; with many other articles of much value and of considerable antiquity, of which an enumeration would be tedious. The office of records, which consists of four rooms, contains all the public documents of state-transactions, from the reign of John to that of Richard III. arranged in proper order, and referred to in several hundreds of folio indexes. This office is kept constantly open for the convenience of such as may wish to consult the records.—Besides these several apartments, the tower contains barracks for the troops of the garrison, and several other houses of less importance. The chief officers of the tower are a constable, a lieutenant, and a deputy lieutenant.

[*St Paul's Cathedral.*] The cathedral of St Paul's is of such extensive dimensions, that it can be compared only with St Peter's at Rome. The architecture is so beautifully simple as to inspire the strongest sensations of sublimity. The general effect is always solemn and impressive. Its dimensions, compared with those of St Peter's are as follows:

The length of St Peter's, 729 feet.	Of St Paul's, 500 feet
The breadth, 364 180
The greatest height, . . 437 340

In the situation and architecture of this noble temple, however, artists have remarked several defects. The situation is such that, from the crowd of surrounding houses, it cannot be seen from a proper point of view. The appearance of the outside leads to the false idea that the inside is divided into two floors. The dome, besides that it has not a proper central situation, is too large in proportion to the edifice. Several defects have likewise been observed within. Sir Christopher Wren at first designed to have but one order instead of two, and without any side-oratories or aisles, these being only necessary for the ceremonies of the church of Rome; and this noble design appears in the beautiful model made by Wren, and kept in the present cathedral. The side-aisles, however, were added, either because their omission was considered too great a departure from the usual form of cathedrals, or (as is supposed by Mr Spence in his anecdotes) because the suggestion of the Duke of York (James II.) was followed, and he was willing to have them ready for the Roman Catholic service as soon as an occasion should arise. The addition of the side-aisles is to be lamented, as they narrowed the building, and broke in upon the beauty of the design; and the architect (observes Spence) insisted so strongly on the prejudice they were to the building, that he actually shed tears on speaking of it; but he remonstrated in vain. It would seem that this sort of interference is a misfortune peculiarly incidental to architects. Few would pretend to have a voice in the composition of a picture or the arrangement of a group of statuary; yet there is scarcely the work of any great architect, in the execution of which he has not in a great measure been compelled to abandon his original design, and adopt the suggestions (often incongruous) of his employers. Michael Angelo, in particular, was exposed to a like persecution, in his great work of St Peter's, and alike had the harmony and beauty of his design impaired. After much cavilling, the different objections were removed; Wren received an express order from the king to proceed according to his own plans; he was allowed to make what variations he pleased, and the whole was left to his own management. The building was commenced in 1675, and in 1710 the highest and last stone was laid by Christopher, the son of the architect. Thus was this splendid edifice, admitted to be the second for grandeur in Europe, completed in 35 years by one architect, under one bishop of London, costing only £736,000, which was raised by a small impost on coals brought to London; whilst St Peter's, the work of twelve architects, took 145 years to build, during the pontificate of nineteen popes.

[*Westminster Abbey.*] Westminster abbey is generally allowed to hold the next place to St Paul's. It is built in the form of a cross; the greatest length is 489 feet; the breadth of the west front 66 feet; the length of the cross aisle 189 feet; and the height of the roof 92 feet. The architecture is said greatly to yield to that of St Paul's, but the internal decorations are much more beautiful; in particular, it contains many tombs and monuments of the noble and the learned. A church on the situation which the abbey now occupies, was built by Sebert, king of the West Saxons. This church was repaired by Edward the Confessor. Henry III. took down the old building, and founded the present abbey. It was afterwards repaired by Edward I. and Edward II.; and a chapel was added by Henry VII. It has several times been repaired by order of

Liverpool.] Liverpool—the metropolis excepted—is the most considerable trading and seaport-town in the British dominions. It is situated near the mouth of the Mersey, by which it has a ready access to the western sea; while, by extensive canals, it has a communication with most parts of England. This city was chartered by Henry II. and king John. It is

the parliament. The magnificence of its proportions, and the richness of its ornaments,—the solemnity of its aspect, and the power and variety of its associations—are altogether unrivalled by any other edifice in the metropolis.

Westminster Hall.] *Westminster Hall* is an old gothic building, to the N. E. of Westminster abbey. It was founded by William II.; and was re-built, in 1397, by Richard II. It is a very large room; its length being 200 feet; its breadth 70, and its height 90 feet. The pavement is of stone. In this room the kings of Britain are crowned; and in different apartments of the building, are held the Courts of Chancery, King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer. The parliament house of Edinburgh is a very good resemblance of Westminster hall, both in its general appearance and in its specific uses. In the neighbourhood of Westminster hall, are the apartments in which the Houses of Lords and Commons meet. That occupied by the House of Commons was formerly a church; none of the apartments are in any degree elegant, or suitable for the meetings of the legislature of a great nation.

Palace of St James's, &c.] It has often been remarked that the British monarchs have no place of residence, which, for magnificence, can be compared with the palaces upon the continent; and the remark is certainly just, with regard to their metropolitan residences. St James's, where the court and royal levees are held, and where the officers of the household chiefly reside, is an irregular edifice of a very ordinary appearance.—The interior apartments, however, exhibit sufficient splendour. The royal family generally reside at the *Queen's Palace*,—a building which, though in elegance it surpasses St James's, is in its turn surpassed by many edifices in the kingdom.—The *Banqueting House* at Whitehall formed part of a palace which was destroyed by fire. This edifice was built by Inigo Jones, by the order of James I. The ceiling is painted by Rubens. *Buckingham House* is a new and fine edifice. *Carlton Palace*, once the favourite town-residence of George IV. is now pulled down.

Hospitals, Charity Schools, &c.] London possesses numerous hospitals. *Christ's Hospital* was founded by Edward IV. for supporting and educating the orphans of poor freemen of the city. There are about 1000 young persons of both sexes maintained and educated at this institution. The whole is under the management of the mayor, aldermen, and about three hundred governors.—*St Bartholomew's Hospital* is situated in the neighbourhood of the former. It was founded by Rubens, Jester to Henry I. Henry VIII. added to its endowments; and since that period, the endowments have been much increased.—*Bethlehem Hospital*, in Moorfields, is designed for the reception and cure of lunatics. The building is convenient and substantial.—*St Luke's Hospital* is adapted for the same purposes with Bethlehem.—*St Thomas' Hospital* is divided into 19 wards, and is said to contain nearly 500 beds.—*Guy's Hospital* was built and endowed in 1726, by Thomas Guy, a bookseller. It has just received an additional endowment of £200,000. It consists of 2 squares, and contains 12 wards and 436 beds.—The *Asylum* was founded in 1738, for the purpose of receiving orphan girls.—In the same year with the former was founded the *Magdalen Hospital*, for the reception of penitent prostitutes.—In 1765, was founded the *Lying-in Hospital*. The design of these three hospitals cannot be too much commended; and their beneficent effects are incalculable. In Westminster, are the *Foundling Hospital*, for the reception of exposed and deserted children, several *Lying-in Hospitals*, and the *Lock Hospital*. Besides these, which are the most remarkable, there are many other hospitals and infirmaries in different parts of the city.

Religious Statistics, &c.] This mighty city necessarily abstracts the energies of the adjacent country, and the proceedings of the county are so identified with the town in moral respects that it is not easy to divide them. In what is usually denominated London and Middlesex, then, there were at the close of 1829, 283 church livings. The total amount of endowed Public Charities was £344,425. The number of Roman Catholic Congregations was 21; of Presbyterians, 15; of Quakers, 12; of Baptists, 57; of Wesleyan Methodists, 59; of other Methodists 7; of Independents, 91. The Collegiate Institutions, besides the London University, were: Homerton and Highbury Independent colleges; the Mission College of Hoxton; Hackney Academy principally supported by the Calvinistic Methodists; and a Baptist academy at Stepney.

Religious Edifices.] Among the numerous churches of this city are several elegant structures. *St Stephen's church*, in Walbrook, has been called the masterpiece of Christopher Wren; *St Mary le Bow* is remarkable for its beautiful steeple; *St Saviour's*, in Southwark, is esteemed the largest parish church in England. In *St Margaret's church*, Westminster, the House of Commons attend divine service on state holidays.—Several of the churches are built from plans given by Inigo Jones. *The Caledonian church* is a beautiful edifice both externally and internally. It is in that accommodated Gothic style which is at present in fashion, and has a pure and graceful effect.

British Museum.] The British museum is a large but not remarkably elegant build-

governed by a mayor, recorder, an indefinite number of aldermen, 2 bailiffs, 41 common councilmen, 2 clerks, and other inferior officers. The right of electing the corporate officers resides in the free burgesses. It sends two members to parliament, who are chosen by the votes of all the free burgesses, who amount at present to about 4,500. Like that of Manchester,

ing. Its gallery of antiquities possesses the finest collection of Grecian marbles extant; and it is a cheering sight to behold it crowded with youthful painters of either sex studying 'the human form divine'—as it well-deserves to be denominated—in these images of gods and godlike men born of the Grecian chisel. In the department of natural history, the Edinburgh museum is decidedly superior. But since the addition of Sir Joseph Banks's library, it may be safely asserted that the British museum contains the best library of natural history in the world. Sir Joseph's splendid collection embraces 24,000 volumes of all that is rare on natural history. It is a fact, that during the long period he was employed in forming this collection, scarcely a traveller left England who was not in possession of an order from Sir Joseph to purchase books, prints, manuscripts, &c. illustrative of natural history, to a large amount. His late Majesty's library again, amounting to 200,000 volumes which his present Majesty has with truly royal magnificence presented to the nation, embraces 60,000 volumes of all that is rare and erudite in the ample range of art and literature. The king's library is rich in works of topography. The *London Institution*, it is well-known, has had hitherto perhaps the best and largest collections of topographical works: since the accession of the king's library to the museum, however, the preference will now be given to the latter establishment. The museum is exceedingly rich in manuscripts; and the library, which is daily increasing, is the most extensive in the kingdom.

New National Gallery.] The erection of a new national gallery, combined with a suitable building and offices for the royal academy, has been determined on. The architect to whom the buildings are to be intrusted is Mr John Nash. The new national gallery and royal academy—for so the building is to be denominated—is to be on a grand scale of 300 yards in length, having a Corinthian portico and centre dome, with a small one on each wing, and a lesser one on each of the principal extremities. The building will form a very picturesque and noble line, extended in a direction from Pall Mall east, nearly across to St Martin's church. His present Majesty George IV. has gifted a splendid collection of paintings to the national gallery.

London University.] The London university, in Gower-street, is an exceedingly respectable and every way suitable establishment, though making no pretensions to any great splendour. The elevation of the principal front is of Portland stone, and exhibits a classic example of the Corinthian order. Its extent, including the projected wings, is 460 feet. The whole is surmounted by a circular dome 56 feet in diameter and 52 feet high, supporting a peristyle and crown.

The *East India House* was built in 1736, but has been more recently decorated.—The *Bank*, founded in 1782, is likewise a plain edifice, with the exception of two beautiful wings. Having been successively enlarged to meet the increasing demands of financial transactions, it was not brought to its present state till 1804.—The *Royal Exchange* was founded by Sir Thomas Gresham, in 1556. The original building, however, was destroyed by fire in 1666; and it was afterwards, at the expense of £80,000, rebuilt as it stands at present. Its form is rectangular. Under the piazzas, on the different fronts, and in different parts of the area or interior court, which is 144 feet long by 118 broad, the merchants of several nations have their allotted stations, which they frequent and where they can readily be found. Niches in different parts of the building contain statues of several of the kings of England, and of the merchants Gresham and Bernard.—The *Stock Exchange* was erected in 1801. None but those persons who are ballotted by an annual committee are allowed to transact business here, which is confined to the purchase and sale of government stock and other public securities.—The other commercial edifices in London have much of the beauty of utility, but little of what may be termed the elegance of architecture. Among the buildings connected with government, may be named the *Horse Guards*, a plain structure, part of which is occupied by the War Office; the *Admiralty Office*, an edifice of considerable magnitude, and far from being destitute of elegance; and the *General Post Office*, a recent structure, the most perfect in its adaptation to the important purpose which it is designed to serve, of any public edifice in Europe.

Gaming Houses.] The British metropolis is by no means destitute of those gaming-establishments which are the bane and curse of Paris. The following calculation gives some idea of what must have been made at all the principal London 'hells,' for the last ten years. Three years back, there were no fewer than 22 of them; some were occasionally closed, but 15 were in full operation at the same time, such profitable concerns they were sure to prove to their keepers. At some, play was continued with little interruption from one at noon to 12 o'clock at night, and at others all hours throughout the night. They are now reduced to about a dozen in number. The games played at one or other of them are *rouge et noir*, *roulette*, *un-deux-cinq*, and *French hazard*, at all of which a bank is put down agreeably to the means of the parties to be played against,

the progressive growth of Liverpool has been very rapid. Commerce began to fix its seat here as early as the reign of Elizabeth; and the construction of a wet dock in 1710, gave it additional encouragement. In 1716, Liverpool possessed 113 ships, amounting to 8,386 tons of shipping. The number of vessels trading to this port in 1829 is stated to have exceeded 10,000, carrying upon an average 200 tons each. The duties received at the Liverpool custom-house for 1828, were nearly £3,500,000. The corporation of Liverpool is one of the most opulent in the kingdom. Its nett estate cannot be valued at less than £2,500,000. The annual income, on an average of ten years, from 1721 to 1730 inclusive, was £1,663 6s. 2d.; for ten years from 1739 to 1748, it amounted to £2,126 19s. 6½d. The income of the corporation for the years 1827-8 amounted to £110,359. If the town and trade of Liverpool continue to increase during the next century, as they have during the last, it will rival London, not only in extent of trade, but in the numbers of its population. In 1700, the inhabitants were estimated at nearly 5,000; in 1760, at 26,000; in 1801, at 78,000; in 1811, at 95,000; and in 1821, at 118,972. The number of dwelling-houses, exclusive of warehouses and places of business, is 24,000. The houses are built of brick, and covered with slates. The streets are mostly spacious, airy, and some of them elegant; and the greater part of them are lighted with gas. The public buildings are splendid and elegant, and suitable to the taste and opulence of the inhabitants. The docks are commodious and extensive, occupying an area of upwards of 90 acres. They are every where surrounded by warehouses. In the year 1734, the amount of dock-duties was only £810; in 1828 they amounted to £141,369. The duties collected in Liverpool are nearly one-fifth of that of the whole kingdom; and two-fifths of the whole export duties of Great Britain and Ireland are collected here. Although the main features of Liverpool are those of a great commercial town, it holds a highly respectable rank in the annals of literature; and the union of high literary talents with commercial abilities has been splendidly illustrated in the career of many of its citizens.

the limitation of stakes varying according to its extent. Thus some play 1s. to £5, others 2s. 6d. to £10, and 5s. to £20, £50, and £100, the bank amounting generally to 20 times the highest limits. The banks have certain points in their favour, upon each of which the stakes of the players in effect lose half; thus each player loses a whole stake on two of those points. The money risked at these 'hells' up to three years ago, was much greater than it is now. However, take an average of time and stakes, and we shall not be far off a right judgment on the subject. Suppose the hours of effective play at all the 'hells' to have been five hours per day all the year round (Sundays excepted), from the year 1814 to 1824, ten years, and that the whole of the stakes upon each event at each 'hell' in the aggregate amounted to no more than £300, then £300 per hour, £1,500 per day, £9,000 a week, £36,000 per month, £468,000 per year were worked into the different banks by such certain points alone. Half of this may be said to be composed of money won a-head of the bank, which thus falling from day to day back again into it, is merely nominal; but the other half is hard money from the pockets of losing players, by the risk of which they have no chance of winning a penny. The half is £234,000 per year, which in the ten years amounts to the vast sum of £2,340,000. This is exclusive of what has been got by cheating, and upon the equal chances, which cannot be remotely guessed at, but it must have been very considerable, as the large masses of plunder gathered by one or other of the keepers are over and above their extravagant expenditure for ten years, which came out of it. There are on an average to each 'hell' three proprietors, four croupiers, and four waiters and porters—in all eleven persons; fifteen hells, eleven to each, make 165 'hellites.' The keepers only share the surplus of plunder after defraying wages and their heavy expenses. The fortunes, therefore, which have been collected by some of them by this horrid system of robbery are immense. Many of these have been accumulated from banks originally not amounting to more than £500 each, and many from even much less. The heart really sickens at the recital, and at the sad reflection that these vast sums are composed of the patri-monies, in part or all, of thousands and thousands, all of whom have been more or less injured, and most entirely ruined and undone by this truly 'hellish' system.

Manchester.] Manchester, in population and manufacturing industry, ranks next to London. It is situated near the confluence of the Irk and Irwell, about 3 miles from the Mersey. It is a place of much antiquity, having been a Roman station; but it first came to be considered as a place of importance about the time of Elizabeth. The buildings are in many instances elegant. The stone-quarries in the immediate neighbourhood afford excellent materials for building. Manchester, like some other trading towns, has increased with amazing celerity. The number of inhabitants,

In 1703, were computed to be	8,000
In 1757, somewhat less than	20,000
In 1801, they amounted to	84,020
In 1811, to	98,573
In 1821, exclusive of Salford, &c. to	133,788

Notwithstanding this great population, Manchester is politically considered only as a village or unrepresented market-town, its supreme magistrate being a constable or headborough! Manchester owes its great increase to its extensive manufactures. Above all, the manufactures of cotton are here carried on to an extent unknown in any other place. The variety and beauty of cotton fabrics made here excite universal admiration. Besides cotton-goods, the principal manufactures are tapes and other small wares, silks and hats. Manchester is 40 miles distant from the sea; but, by means of inland navigation, it has a communication with the greater part of England, by the rivers Mersey, Dee, Ribble, Ouse, Trent, Derwent, Severn, Humber, Thames, Avon, all which rivers are connected by canals. Manchester, like Liverpool, while celebrated for its industry, has won celebrity for its love of science and literature.

Birmingham.] This town, situated upon the declivity of a hill in Warwickshire, is another of those which owe their rapid increase to flourishing manufactures. The upper part of the town is occupied by several streets regularly built, and a square of some elegance. In the lower part are situated numerous workshops and warehouses, the sources of its opulence. Birmingham is governed by 2 constables and 2 bailiffs, and like Manchester is unrepresented in parliament. The hardware manufactures of this town are well-known, and have long been celebrated; in neatness of execution and lowness of price, they remain every where unrivalled. While Manchester and Glasgow derive their wealth from weaving, Birmingham derives hers entirely from the working of metals. At the beginning of the 17th century, Birmingham had a population of 10,000 souls; in 1811, it had 85,753; and in 1821, the population amounted to 106,722. On viewing the immense quantity of goods which are hourly despatched from this town to all quarters of the globe, one can hardly believe that 22,000 families should be found sufficient for their fabrication; but the aid of machinery has here prodigiously increased the productive power of man, while its ten navigable canals enable it to maintain an easy communication with the surrounding districts. Some idea may be formed of the value of land in the centre of Birmingham, when we state that about £10,000 was recently asked for an unoccupied space of about three-quarters of an acre.

Bristol.] The city of Bristol stands on an elevated situation between the rivers Avon and Frome, partly in Somerset and partly in Gloucestershire. It lays claim to considerable antiquity. It is about 7 miles in circumference; and in one direction is 3 miles long. Two-thirds of the space

which it occupies belongs to Gloucestershire ; but the city itself was erected into a separate jurisdiction by Edward III., in 1372. The trade of Bristol was formerly much greater than it is at present, but is still far from being inconsiderable. The manufactures consist chiefly of woollen cloth, glass, and refined sugar. Bristol is well-situated for the trade of Ireland, America, Africa, and the West Indies, and it still enjoys a considerable share of the trade of these places. The trade with Africa has indeed been almost wholly transferred to Liverpool, and much of its trade to other countries. The number of inhabitants in 1811, was 76,433 ; in 1821, 87,780, inclusive of the suburbs. Great improvements have been recently made in the navigation of the river, and by the formation of ample wet docks. The freemen and freeholders of the city amount to about 8,000.

Leeds.] Leeds is situated on the river Aire, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. This town is chiefly remarkable for its great market for the fine broad cloths. The hall appointed for the sale of this manufacture is very large. The Aire is navigable for boats, and a trade is thus carried on with York. The population of the town and pariah, in 1811, was 62,534 ; in 1821, 83,796.

York.] The city of York is very ancient, and on that account, as well as on account of its being an archbishopric, and the reputed capital of the north of England, it is considered as ranking in dignity next to the city of London ; but in real importance, in population, and in trade, it is inferior to any of the cities which have just been enumerated. It is situated upon the Ouse, near the middle of Yorkshire, and enjoys a separate jurisdiction. The cathedral in particular, is noted for the beauty of its Gothic architecture, the height of its spire, and the elegance of its painted windows. This splendid building was much damaged by fire—the work of a fanatic incendiary—in 1828 ; but it has been nearly restored. The bridge upon the Ouse has been compared—perhaps with much vanity—to the bridge of the Rialto at Venice. Though the foreign commerce of York is totally annihilated, it still retains a considerable river-trade ; and vessels of 120 tons burden come up the Ouse as high as the bridge. Some business is also transacted in gloves, linens, livery laces, glass, and drugs. Printing and book-selling are also conducted on a large scale. Provisions of all kinds are cheap. This city is, therefore, chosen by many of the northern families as a winter-residence ; and by this, together with its fairs, assizes, and races, it maintains a considerable degree of splendour. The population in 1811, was 18,217 ; in 1821, 20,788.

Oxford.] There is something very imposing about the whole appearance of Oxford : derived not only from the richness in respect of execution, but from the affluence in point of number, and the variety in point of style, of the edifices with which every corner and lane of the city is distinguished. Twenty-four colleges, and 17 churches, besides numerous other academical buildings of a general kind, with groves and gardens and avenues of majestic trees, and numberless branches and windings of classic streams, and all resounding with the incessant pealing of uncounted bells, give the place the appearance of being less intended for ordinary use than any other city in the kingdom. The same idea which the town itself suggests is reflected from the appearance of the population, of which the predominant and striking feature is the multitude and mystical variety of academic dresses. The population of the city and university of Oxford was 16,364 souls in 1821. The university, which is of very great antiquity, together with the various edifices connected with its colleges, adds materially to its import-

ance, or rather supplies the whole celebrity of this city. The following is a list of the several colleges, with the dates of their foundation.

1. University college, said to have been founded by Alfred,	886
Both the founder and date of the foundation of this college are thought to be false. It is said to have been founded by William archdeacon of Durham in	1292
2. Baliol college, John Baliol, father of John, king of Scotland, and his wife, Devomilla,	1263
3. Merton college, Walter Merton, bishop of Rochester,	1276
4. Exeter college, Walter Stapleton, bishop of Exeter,	1316
5. Oriel college, Adam de Brome, almoner to Edward II.	1323
6. Queen's college, Robert Eggesfield, chaplain to queen Philippa,	1340
7. New college, William of Wickham, bishop of Winchester, finished by Thomas de Rotherham, archbishop of York,	1475
8. Lincoln college, Richard Fleming,	1437
9. All Souls, Henry Chickley, archbishop of Canterbury,	1438
10. Magdalen college, William of Wainflet, bishop of Winchester,	1458
11. Brazen Nose, William Smith, bishop of Lincoln,	1513
12. Corpus Christi, Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester,	1516
13. Christ Church, Wolsey and Henry VIII.	1539
14. Trinity college, Sir Thomas Pope,	1556
15. St John's, Sir Thomas White,	1557
16. Jesus' college, Dr Price,	1571
17. Wadham college, Nicholas Wadham, Esq.,	1613
18. Pembroke, Thomas Tesdale, Esq.,	1624
19. Worcester college,	1713
20. Hertford college, formerly Hertford Hall, made a college in	1740
Alban hall—Edmund hall—St Mary's hall—New-Inn hall—St Mary Magdalen hall.	

Cambridge.] The city of Cambridge derives its name from the Cam, on the banks of which it is situated, and like Oxford, chiefly owes its celebrity to its University and Colleges, first established in the time of Edward I. The streets are in general not remarkable for their uniformity or the houses for their elegance. The population of this city in 1801 was 10,780 souls; in 1821, it was 14,182. The following is a list of the colleges belonging to the university, with their founders, and dates of foundation:

1. Peter-house, Hugh Palsam, bishop of Ely,	1284
2. Clare hall, Elizabeth de Burg, countess of Ulster,	1340
3. Pembroke hall, Mary de Valentia, countess of Pembroke,	1340
4. Gonville and Caius, the doctors so named,	1348 and 1557
5. Trinity hall, William Bateman, bishop of Norwich,	1353
6. Bonnet, or Corpus Christi, Henry duke of Lancaster,	1356
7. King's college, Henry VI.	1443
8. Queen's college, Margaret of Anjou,	1446
9. Catherine hall, Richard Woodlark,	1474
10. Jesus' college, John Alcock, bishop of Ely,	1497
11. Christ's college, Margaret of Richmond, mother of Henry VIII.	1516
12. St John's, by the same person,	1511
13. Magdalen college, Thomas Lord Audley,	1520
14. Trinity college, Henry VIII.	1546
15. Emanuel, Sir Walter Mildmay,	1569
16. Sydney college, Frances Sydney, countess of Sussex,	1588

Minor Cities and Towns.] *Bath*, celebrated for its medicinal waters, is esteemed the most beautiful town in England; it is wholly built of white stone. By the infirm, it is visited for the sake of health; and by the gay for the sake of dissipation.—*Sheffield*, in Yorkshire, is celebrated for its cutlery and plated goods; it has, like other trading towns, increased rapidly

in its size.—*Exeter*, in Devonshire, is respectable from its antiquity, but has lost much of its former importance; it has a considerable trade in coarse woollen goods.—*Falmouth*, from which many packets are despatched, is the most westerly port in England; the harbour is excellent, and the commerce of some importance.—*Salisbury* has a cathedral of much beauty, the spire of which—the highest in England—rises to the elevation of 400 feet; it manufactures flannels, cutlery goods, and hardware.—*Winchester* is remarkable as having formerly been the metropolis of England; it consequently contains many antiquities. The school of Winchester has been much celebrated.—*Portsmouth* is interesting, as the chief resort of the British fleet,—the bulwark of the empire. The excellency of the harbour is well-known.—*Plymouth* is a thriving town, the trade of which has nearly doubled within the last 30 years.—*Kent* is remarkable chiefly, as being, in an ecclesiastical view, the first town in England.—*Dover* always commands some attention during a war with France.—*Gloucester* is one of the neatest towns in England, but has little trade; it has some antiquities, and the cathedral is esteemed a fine building.—The appearance of *Norwich* is very irregular; but its extent is considerable, and its commerce important. It manufactures damasks, camlets, crapes, stuffs.—*Chester* is remarkable for its streets depressed considerably below the surface of the earth, with elevated covered walks on each side for foot-passengers.—The trade of *Hull* with America, with the countries upon the Baltic, with the south of Europe, and along the eastern coast of Britain, is very extensive. The dock is supposed to be the largest in Britain, though the harbour be the effect of art.—*Bradfield*, *Halifax*, and *Wakefield*, like *Leeds*, are noted for their woollen-manufactures.—*Durham* is an ancient city, and is still of considerable size. It has a little trade in woollen goods; and the grandeur and beauty of the cathedral and surrounding scenery have been often mentioned.—*Sunderland* and *North* and *South Shields* are well-known seaports.—*Newcastle-upon-Tyne* is large and populous; it is remarkable for its very extensive trade in coal, and is an excellent nursery for seamen.

Welsh Towns.] *Caermarthen*, situated upon the Towy, with a population of nearly 9000 souls, is considered as the capital of South Wales; it has little commerce.—*Caernarvon* is the capital of North Wales. Its appearance is regular and beautiful; and its commerce good.—*Holywell* possesses considerable cotton-manufactures.—The port of *Holyhead*, situated in a small island W. of Anglesea, at the entrance of St George's channel, is protected by a noble mole. Hundreds of vessels are often seen in its anchorage.

Population Table.] The following is a list of the cities, boroughs, and towns in England and Wales, the population of each of which, according to the returns of 1821, exceeded 5,000:

ENGLAND.		Beverley, with its Liberties, York, (East Riding)	7,503
		Bingley, York, (West Riding)	6,176
Abingdon, Berks,	5,137	Birmingham, with Aston and Edge- baston, Warwick	106,722
Alnwick, Northumberland . . .	5,927	Blackburn, Lancashire,	21,940
Ashton-under-Lyne, Lancashire .	9,222	Bolton, (Great) Lancashire . . .	22,037
Barnsley, York, (W. Riding) . .	8,284	Boston, Lincoln,	10,373
Barnstaple, Devon,	5,079	Bradford, York, (West Riding)	13,064
Bath, Somerset,	36,811	Bridgewater, Somerset	6,155
Bedford,	5,466	Brighton, Sussex	24,489
Belper, Derby	7,235	Bristol, Gloucester and Somerset	87,779
Berwick-on-Tweed, Northumber- land	6,723	Bromsgrove, Worcester	7,519

Burnley, Lancashire,	6,378	Madely, Salop	5,379
Burslem, Stafford,	9,699	Maidstone, Kent	12,508
Bury, Lancashire,	10,583	Manchester, with Salford, Ard-	
Bury St Edmund's, Suffolk	9,999	wick, Charlton, Row Chee-	
Cambridge	14,142	tham Hulme, Lancashire	149,756
Canterbury, Kent	12,745	Mansfield, Nottingham	7,861
Carlisle, Cumberland	15,476	Margate, Kent	7,843
Chatham, Kent	15,268	Middleton, Lancashire	5,069
Cheltenham, Gloucester,	13,386	Newark, Nottingham	8,064
Cheam, Bucks	5,032	Newbury, Berks	5,347
Chester, City of	19,949	Newcastle-on-Tyne, with Gates-	
Chesterfield, Derby	5,077	head	46,948
Chichester, Sussex	7,362	Newcastle-under-Lyne, Stafford	7,031
Chorley, Lancashire,	7,315	Northampton	10,793
Colchester, Essex	14,016	Norwich, Norfolk	50,888
Colne, Lancashire	7,274	Nottingham, Town of	40,415
Congleton, Chester	6,405	Nuneaton, Warwick	6,610
Coventry, Warwick	21,242	Oldham, Lancashire	22,510
Crediton, Devon	5,515	Oxford, City and University	16,364
Croydon, Surrey	9,254	Penrith, Cumberland	5,385
Darlington, Durham	5,750	Penzance, Cornwall	5,224
Deal, Kent	6,811	Plymouth, Devon	61,212
Deptford, Kent	19,862	Poole, Dorset	6,390
Derby, Town of	17,423	Portsmouth and Portsea, South-	
Dewsbury, York, (West Riding)	6,380	ampton	42,054
Doncaster, York, (West Riding)	8,544	Preston, Lancashire	24,575
Dover, Kent	10,327	Ramsgate, Kent	6,031
Dudley, Worcester	18,211	Reading, Berks	12,867
Durham, City of	9,822	Redruth, Cornwall	6,607
Ely, Cambridge	5,079	Rochdale, Lancashire and York,	
Enfield, Middlesex	8,227	(West Riding)	11,516
Exeter, Devon	23,479	Rochester, Kent	9,309
Falmouth, Cornwall	6,374	Salisbury, Wilts	8,763
Farnham, Surrey	5,413	Scarborough, York, (N. Riding)	8,533
Frome, Somerset	12,411	Sheffield, York, (West Riding)	42,157
Gainsborough, Lincoln	6,761	Shepton Mallett, Somerset	6,021
Gloucester, City of	9,744	Shields, N., Northumberland	8,205
Gosport, Southampton	6,184	Shields South, Durham	8,885
Grantham, Lincoln	9,394	Shrewsbury, Salop	19,602
Greenwich, Kent	20,712	Southampton	13,353
Halifax, York, (West Riding)	12,628	Spalding, Lincoln	5,207
Hanley and Shelton, Stafford	12,947	Stafford	5,736
Haslingden, Lancashire	6,595	Stamford, Lincoln	5,050
Hastings, Sussex	5,085	St Austle, Cornwall	6,175
Hereford, City of	9,090	Stockport, Chester	33,356
Hinckley, Leicester	6,706	Stockton-on-Tees, Durham	5,006
Huddersfield, (West Riding)	13,284	Stourbridge, Worcester	5,080
Hull, York, (East Riding)	44,924	Stroud, Gloucester	7,097
Ipswich, Suffolk	17,186	Sunderland, Durham	14,725
Keighley, York, (West Riding)	9,223	Taunton, Somerset	8,534
Kendal, Westmoreland	8,964	Tavistock, Devon	5,483
Kidderminster, Worcester	10,709	Tiverton, Devon	6,712
Knaresborough, York, (W. Riding)	5,283	Trowbridge, Wilts	9,545
Lancaster, Lancashire	10,144	Tunbridge, Kent	7,406
Leeds, York, (West Riding)	83,796	Wakefield, York, (West Riding)	10,764
Leicester	30,125	Walsall, Stafford	11,914
Lewes, Sussex	7,083	Warminster, Wilts	5,612
Lichfield, Stafford	6,075	Warrington, Lancashire	13,570
Lincoln	10,367	Warwick	8,235
Liverpool, Lancashire	118,972	Wednesbury, Stafford	6,471
London, with its dependencies	1,225,694	Wellington, Salop	8,390
Longton and Lane End, Stafford	7,100	Wells, Somerset	5,888
Loughborough, Leicester	7,365	Weymouth and Melcombe Regis,	
Louth, Lincoln	6,012	Dorset	6,622
Lynn Regis, Norfolk	12,253	Whitby, York, North Riding	8,697
Macclesfield, Chester	17,746	Whitehaven, Cumberland	12,438

Wigan, Lancashire	7,716	Kotton-under-Edge, Gloucester	5,004
Winchester, Southampton	7,739	Yarmouth, Great Norfolk	18,040
Windsor, Berks	5,698	York	20,787
Wirksworth, Derby	6,318		
Wisbeach, St Peter's, Cambridge	6,515		
Wolverhampton, Stafford	18,380		
Woolwich, Kent	17,006		
Worcester, City of	17,023		
Workington, Cumberland	6,439		

WALES.

Caermarthen	8,906
Swansea, Glamorgan	8,309
Holywell, Flint	10,235

CHAP. VII.—NATIONAL CHARACTER—MANNERS AND CUSTOMS
—LANGUAGE—LITERATURE.

It was a remark of Dr Johnson's, upon landing in France, when his companion Samuel Foote burst out into rapturous admiration of the beautiful landscape, the vivid verdure of the fields, and the rich foliage of the trees, "A leaf is a leaf, and a blade of grass is a blade of grass every where; let us get on and see men and women wherein they differ," which was certainly a matter of much more importance, and to the student of this earth, as the abode of mankind, a matter of far greater curiosity. Countries become the subject of inquiry and investigation, not so much from the mountains or forests which they exhibit, or the waters which they pour into the ocean,—not as for ever radiant with the bright light of heaven, or perpetually enveloped in the cloudy mantle of the storm,—as from the character, the history, and the achievements of the people who inhabit them. Hence to the general reader, the mere geographical situation of a country is not particularly interesting. The aspect of hills, and the projections and indentations of shores, are not the primary objects of his attention. But, what has been transacted upon these hills? and what is the echo which Time reverberates from these shores? are questions which awaken within his bosom the liveliest emotions and the most ardent anticipations. Why are the shores of the Red Sea,—the sands of Egypt,—the deserts of Nubia,—and the parched plains of Palestine,—so attractive to the foot of the traveller, and objects of such intense interest to the reader? Is it not because they were the scenes of miraculous transactions, or the birth-places of science,—because they once resounded with the busy hum of industry, and once wore the placid aspect of civilization, and the smile of fertility? Why does Italy, now the abode of crouching slaves and drivelling priests, still call up to the imagination so many delightful emotions? Not surely because she enjoys a pure sky and a cloudless sun. No! but because she gave birth to Virgil and to Cicero, to Cæsar and Antoninus, and has sent forth over the world a stream of mental illumination, which has been ever deepening in its course, and which will widen and deepen more and more, till the benefits of light and civilization be spread like the waters of the ocean to every clime and shore. Upon this principle, we cannot but think that the manners and customs of the country which gave birth to Milton and Shakspeare,—to Bacon, and Newton, and Locke,—which numbers among her statesmen a Hampden, a Pym, a Hollis, a Sydney, and a Russel,—among her warriors a Blake, a Marlborough, a Nelson, and a Wellington,—must be, to all our readers, a subject of peculiar interest; and we enter upon our task, under a painful conviction that it must awaken expectations which we are unable to satisfy.

England has long held a distinguished rank among the nations of the world,—a rank for which she seems to be indebted far less to the fertility

of her soil than to the wisdom of her institutions. When all the rest of Europe was either sunk or fast sinking into barbarism, she was blessed by Providence with an Alfred, who laid the foundation of that liberty she has so long enjoyed, as well as of that glory which now hallows her name; and upon which has arisen a system of domestic economy the most admirable, and a degree of national felicity and comfort probably more rich and uninterrupted than has ever been enjoyed by any other country. Far less conversant with literature, generally speaking, than their Scottish neighbours, the people of England are in all the arts of life greatly superior. In their persons they are more cleanly, in their habitations more neat, and at their tables more sumptuous. In person, the English are generally well-sized, with regular features, and a fair or rather florid complexion. English women possess a very high degree of sexual beauty; and are distinguished for ardency of attachment as lovers,—for constancy, docility, economy, and chastity, as wives,—and as mothers, for prudent watchfulness and the tenderest affection.

Benevolence has been long considered,—and we think most justly,—to be a conspicuous feature in the English character. It marks indeed all their institutions; and the immense sums which are annually expended for improving the temporal and spiritual condition of tribes and nations at the most remote ends of the earth, is an evidence of generosity, to which, with the exception of North America, we can find no parallel among nations, ancient or modern. The intense interest too excited among all ranks and degrees of the community in behalf of the oppressed, proves how much the enjoyment of freedom enlarges and liberalizes all the finer feelings of the soul. Steady and cool determination seems to be another distinguishing feature in the English character. From the fields of Cressy and Poitiers, down to those of Blenheim and Waterloo, English soldiers have maintained the character of being powerful in attack, and, where passive courage is required, altogether unrivalled. Gloomy despondency has been supposed to form a peculiar trait of the national character; but the supposition does not appear ever to have had any proper foundation, though it has often been made the groundwork of fictitious narrative pretending to display, and of philosophical discussion attempting to analyze, national peculiarities. The fact is, that France, esteemed the very birth-place of gaiety and good humour, exhibits a far greater number of suicides than England, where self-murder has so often been supposed to have become perfectly naturalized. The last reputed trait of national character, we shall notice, is credulity,—a fault from which honest John Bull cannot altogether be vindicated; though we are fully persuaded that its manifestation generally proceeds more from the goodness of his heart, than from the obtuseness of his head. Quackery of all kinds is more countenanced in England than in any other country of civilized Europe; and puffing impudence never fails to obtain here a momentary popularity. But, upon the whole, when we consider the general features of the English character,—their great dexterity in the arts,—their habits of industry,—their general taste in domestic arrangements,—their love of liberty,—and the superior excellence of all their civil institutions, we hesitate not to pronounce them, not only the greatest, but the best and the happiest of modern nations.

In the amusements of the people of England there is much to be censured: many of them being barbarous and cruel in a high degree. Horseracing, cock-fighting, bull-baiting, and pugilistic exhibitions, seem to be general favourites,—not with the rabble only,—but with men of high rank

and polite accomplishments; nor have there been wanting politicians of great name to advocate in the British senate, and writers of talent to inculcate, these debasing and cruel pastimes as highly beneficial, and laying a foundation for all the excellencies of the English character! The sports of the field are very generally pursued; and a hunting parson is no singularity among the clergy of England. The sedentary games practised in England are nearly the same as those of the continent. Theatrical amusements, assemblies, concerts, routs, &c. are greatly resorted to in the fashionable world. Duelling, to the discredit of the law, is still a generally prevailing practice. The people of England have, notwithstanding, many pastimes, which, pursued in moderation, are harmless and amusing: such as cricket, bowls, quoits, football, wrestling, ringing of bells, &c.

English Language.] The English language is derived from several sources. The chief part of it is Gothic, introduced by the Saxons. Next to the words of Gothic origin, are those derived from the Latin, and chiefly through the medium of the French. The Saxon part of the English language was introduced by the Saxons at the conquest. The French part was in a great measure introduced by William I. A number of terms have been directly introduced from the Latin, Greek, and other languages. The consequence has been that we now possess a copious language, easily applicable to every subject, and exhibiting a greater degree of ductility than any of the languages of Europe, with the exception, perhaps, of the German. The generality of English writers, when speaking of their language, describe it in the most encomiastic terms. We are told that it has all the good properties, without any of the defects of other European languages; that it is more energetic, manly, and expressive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spanish; more eloquent than the German, or other northern tongues. Though some of these encomiums may be, nay doubtless are, in part true, yet it must be confessed that a man's native tongue is one of those things of which it is extremely difficult for him to form an impartial judgment. Dr Johnson's dictionary—which is still the standard dictionary of the English language—contains the following words, but later lexicographers profess to enumerate from 5,000 to 10,000 words more:

Articles,	3	Participial Nouns,	3
Nouns Substantive,	20,410	Adverbs,	406
— Adjective,	9,053	Do, ending in <i>ly</i> ,	3,085
Pronouns,	41	Prepositions,	69
Verbs,	7,880	Conjunctions,	19
Participles,	38	Interjections,	68
Participial Adjectives,	125		
		Total,	41,301

We subjoin a specimen of the Anglo-Saxon.¹⁵

English Literature.] The history of English literature—a subject sufficient to occupy many volumes—cannot, in this place, be minutely detailed; we have room only for a few remarks. The early periods of English history present few names which are now greatly respected. Gildas is perhaps the earliest native writer of whom any thing is known. He wrote about the year 560. Bede, a venerable historian, flourished towards the beginning of the 8th century. Alfred no less distinguished himself by his literary talents, than by his abilities as a monarch. The history of England was written by Matthew Paris, a monk of St Alban's, who died in 1259; his authority is much respected by modern historians. During

¹⁵ Uren fader thi art in Heofnas. Sie gehalgud thin noma. To cymeth thin Rye. Sie thin willa, sue is in Heofnas and in eortho. Uren hlaf of erwistflir secl ys to daeg. And forgeve us scylda urna sue we forgefian seuldgum urum. And no inlead usig in custnauig. Ah gefrig ualch from efre. Amen.

the 13th century appeared Roger Bacon, whose abilities, if we consider the general darkness of the age, cannot be sufficiently admired. The progress of learning could not be great among the generality of people in any country, while the art of printing remained unknown. While books could be multiplied only by the slow and expensive mode of transcription, they were confined to the possession of the great, who were frequently more engaged in the turbulent and destructive projects of ambition, than in the calm pursuits of literature. What little learning these early ages possessed, was confined to convents and monasteries,—institutions wherein learning never made great progress, and where it never can be of much use. But however ignorant the priests and monks might be, the possession of books tended to exalt them in the esteem of the vulgar; and to them chiefly we owe the preservation of those monuments of antiquity, which have tended both to civilize modern nations, and to promote the improvement of modern taste. Among the first and most liberal encouragers of classical literature in England, and particularly of Greek learning, was Humphrey duke of Gloucester, brother to Henry V. This royal ‘bibliomaniac of the dark ages,’ as he is styled by Mr Tytler, earnestly laboured to banish the gloom of barbarism, in which England was in his time involved, by his own example as an author and a scholar,—by a munificent and enlightened patronage of contemporary efforts of learning, especially of such as were directed to enriching modern Europe with Latin translations of the Greek classics (a labour in which the learned of Italy were at that time largely occupied),—but especially by forming collections of the best ancient authors. Of the latter mode, his present to the University of Oxford, of above 600 splendid volumes, written on vellum, and elegantly embellished with miniatures and illuminations, is a noble example. The first whom Mr Tytler mentions of those English scholars who studied the Greek language in Italy—then the only school of polite letters—are John Tiptoft, earl of Worcester, Lord chancellor to Edward IV., and John Free or Phreas. Tiptoft and Free, with Grey, Fleming, and Gundorp, passed over from Oxford into Italy, and became pupils of Guarini. Tiptoft brought back with him to England, whither he was accompanied by the Italian scholar Ludovico Carbo, a valuable collection of manuscripts. He left several works in Latin and in English. Of Free, we are told, there remain high encomiums, from the pen of Guarini himself, in the collection of his epistles preserved in the library of Baliol college. It is the opinion of Mr Tytler, that we may reckon among the causes which operated in the introduction of Greek literature among us, the intercourse which necessarily took place between the orators assembled from different nations of Europe, at the various papal councils. At the council of Constance, for instance, in 1415, the four eminent ecclesiastics sent out as representatives of England, had an opportunity of conversing with Chrysoloros, the father of Greek learning in Italy, and with Poggio Bracciolini, one of its most ardent restorers; which, from the known literary taste of some individuals among them, it is supposed they would not wholly neglect. But it was the art of printing, introduced into England by Caxton in 1471, which, more than any other cause, contributed to advance the interests of learning in England. When we look back upon the history of English literature, we observe various eras distinctly marked in its shining progress. The first epoch of our classical literature is that which followed the invention of printing, and the revival of ancient learning on the continent. This was the age of Chau-

cer, Spencer, and Shakspeare. The influence of classical learning had not as yet made itself deeply and universally felt through the intellect of our country. The religious and literary revolutions of the age had roused up the spirit into vigorous action, but had not yet moulded the character and impressed the direction of its efforts. Thus we find the literary achievements of this period of our history to be merely, as it were, the instinctive exertions of the newly-awakened mind, not the reasoned evolutions of the enlarged and meditative intellect, or the sacred fruits of principles and morality. The soul of Shakspeare, the master-spirit of this illustrious era, manifestly drew its inspiration entirely from within. Glorifying in the consciousness of strength, it spurned at all guidance, and overpassed all bounds; under the impulse of its own free energies, it gave vent to the exhilarated sense of power, sometimes in sublime aspirations, and sometimes in fantastic gambols; now entangling itself in the low thickets of conceit, now making itself pavilions in the clouds, and setting its nest among the stars.

In the second period of English literature, the original talent of the nation was cultivated and moulded to an unparalleled degree by the study of classical learning; and if we regard merely the exertion of power by the human mind, we shall, with very little hesitation, assign to this era the most distinguished place in the literary history of England. 'There were giants in these days upon the earth.' He who is not familiar with their productions can have no conception of the infinite resources of our intellect and our tongue. This was the age of Bacon and of Milton, of Taylor and of Howe. There is about all its remains a conscious strength that never seeks to hide itself under the shelter of general phrases and professions of imperfection; and the very multiplicity of division which has been objected to the literature of this age is a proof of the remark. It dares to grapple at art with every subject it undertakes to meet, and pursues it through all the windings of the dialectical labyrinth; while we of this more refined and less venturous generation are continually professing that it is not our intention to treat the subject in all its fulness and extent, with a thousand other cant phrases by which we seek to conceal our inability, under the mask of unwillingness. Where is the man now-a-days, who would dare to say with Bacon: "These are the meditations of Francis of Verulam, which, for posterity to know, he counteth it their interest." Or with Milton:

" My adventurous song,
Which, with no middle flight, intends to soar
Above the Aonian mount, while it pursues
Things unattempted yet in prose or rhyme."

Nursed in the schools, where as yet physical science was but a ridiculous collection of vague theories and fantastic principles, and where intellectual philosophy was nothing but a jargon of uncouth phraseology, metaphysical subtlety, and barren disputation, the minds of the great men of this age were directed to theological and classical learning as the only objects of study which yielded any thing like use or satisfaction. Hence arises the peculiar character of the literature of England under the greater part of the Stuart dynasty, savouring, as it does, to such an extent, of classic erudition, and formed by a classic standard. If we take Milton as an exemplification of the literary spirit of this age, in the same way as we employed the genius of Shakspeare to typify the last, we shall find this marked difference between their manner, in as far as

that does not depend on original distinction of talent—that while the latter follows freely wherever the varying impulse of his mind leads him, the former has a distinct end always in view, and is urged on in his course by excitements drawn as much from acquired standards of judgment, as from the native tendencies of his genius. Shakspeare pursues at random the glorious thoughts which flash and undulate before his eyes. Milton never loses sight of Helicon, and the summit of the Aonian mount is that by which he measures the elevation of his song. A similar distinction may be stated in general between the literature of the one era and that of the other. The one is that of intellectual strength, self-prompted and self-directed; the other is that of mental power, guided by a classical spirit, and measuring itself by a classical standard. On the confines of these two ages, and combining in his mighty intellect the characteristic excellencies of both, stands the illustrious Bacon. From the former he derived that fearless consciousness of innate strength which enabled him to leave the old and trodden path of intellectual thought, and invent for future generations a new organ of knowledge. With the latter, he participated that intimate familiarity with antiquity, which enabled him to draw from its stores the bright and beautiful classical illustration that so abundantly adorns his works.

As yet, the literary character of the English language, though full of vigour, riches, and depth, was deficient in refinement and delicacy. As the progress of the tongue, however, and the influence of classical taste growing out of classical erudition, advanced, literary composition was freed from these defects. Among the first great authors who contributed to these results is to be numbered the illustrious Locke; and during the greater part of last century, the process going on upon our literature was a process of gradual improvement in polish, exactness, and system. The natural influence of these changes was much increased in reference to poetical composition, by the prevalence of French tastes and opinions which followed the Restoration. A complete revolution took place in the character of our poetry, and instead of its former exuberance, freedom, and energy, it became distinguished by a hard and artificial brilliance, weight, and penetration. Towards the end of last century, the way began to be prepared for a return from art to nature, by the genius of Gray, of Goldsmith, and especially of Cowper. And the revolution has, in our own day, been carried into complete effect by a host of genius, which, in its amount and its activity, is altogether unrivalled in the history of literature. The literature of our day cannot be described by any distinct and definite character like that of former ages. There is such a quantity, such a restlessness, such a versatility of talent in operation throughout the literary world, as makes it impossible to fix on any separate name, study, or peculiarity, by which to designate it. There have been men, it is freely confessed, in former ages, whose consecrated names shall be sphered higher in the firmament of renown, and shall blaze with more dazzling lustre through the dark depths of time, than any single star of that galaxy of intellectual splendour which glorifies our horizon. But never before was so thickly-clustered a constellation seen in the heaven of literature, and never was the hemisphere so full of light. Nor is it merely the amount of literary talent and general information by which our age is distinguished, that claims our attention. A still more remarkable phenomenon, which indeed may be regarded as the cause of the former, is the extreme restlessness of effort with which this talent and this knowledge are operating. ‘Many are running to and fro, and knowledge is increased.’ The intel-

lect which is diffused through all classes of society will remain dormant in none. "*Scribimus indocti doctique*;" titled and plebeian, rich and poor, soldiers and sailors, are equally candidates for intellectual fame, and through the thousand channels of the press, inundate and fertilize the land with ever-flowing thought. Formerly, to print a book used to be an awful thing. The literary adventurer stood full in the eye of the world, he could not hope to pass muster in the multitude of his associates, or to elevate his pigmy intellect on stilts without the artifice being discovered. But now, such are the crowds that throng into the arena from every side, that no feeling of awe or of peril has room to visit any adventurer—and then, if he succeed, what can he do better than try again?—If he fail, still what better can he do than try again? Thus it is, that the whole empire of literature exhibits the spectacle of fierce commotions, canons the most ancient and venerable disregarded, the old paths forsaken, and restless talent wandering over the whole amplitude of things in search of novelty and originality. Nor is the variety of intellectual capacity in our day less striking than its amount or its activity. All the endless diversities of scientific research, and speculative or imaginative literature, are pursued by innumerable votaries. Sciences whose very names were before unknown, are daily added to the vocabulary of philosophy. Poetry is pouring a thousand streams of inspiration through the land, and learning is enlarging her boundaries on every side. Yet proud as we are of all this energy and all this achievement, we must confess that there is room for apprehension in reference to the prospects of literature. For let us ask, what is the general taste of readers, and what the general object of authors in the present day? Are not both descriptions of individuals in a great measure the slaves of originality, excitement, poignancy, and effect? From the tales of the nursery to the addresses of the pulpit, effect is every thing. Never has it been thought necessary to employ so many artifices in order to sweeten the useful and medicinal potion, and trick men into knowledge and virtue. Our children are not suffered to hear useful truth addressed to them in that direct and simple manner, in which, after all, they apprehend it most readily, and feel its influence most strongly; but they must have it presented to their minds, disguised under narrative, or enveloped in the mysteries of a game at tetotum. In the same way are we apparently regarded as great children, and from day to day our admiration is solicited, and too often obtained, by what has nothing of intrinsic worth to recommend it, and only dazzles us by its gilding and its garnishing. Few or none can trust themselves to speak simply, and the public do not seem willing to hear what is simply told them. This hankering after effect to the exclusion of suitable regard to the substance, is a very dangerous system, which imperiously requires to be counteracted. The loss is, that to be extravagant is so much more easy than to be simply great, that for one who is the latter, a thousand literary men make themselves the former. The simple writers of our age, the Stewarts, the Halls, the Campbells, are among the least prolific; and, for this simple reason, that in one ingot of their gold there is more value condensed, than the price of all the tinsel which an ordinary writer would sprinkle over whole bales of his flimsy gauze, the very "woven wind" of the ancients. It was a similar taste, in ancient times, that gave birth to the conceits of Ovid, the epigrams of Tacitus, the coarse dark copiousness of Lucan, and the insane turgidity of Statius. All these were men of the loftiest genius, but they prostituted their talents to the embraces of a vitiated taste, and the offspring was ill-favoured and ill-starred.

Our establishments and discoveries relating to science, arts, and manufacture will bear comparison with those of any other nation in Europe. To enumerate only those of the last half century, the annals of British science record: Vaccination, if not discovered, at least applied to relieve the human species from one of the most dreadful diseases to which it is exposed—Various improvements in education to an immense extent, according to the methods devised by Bell, Lancaster, and others, and which have been introduced from this country into almost every nation of the globe—Improvements in the steam-engine, and its infinite applications to the highest uses, as well as to promote the hourly convenience of every class of society, and most especially of the poor. By means of this instrument, one of the most powerful which human ingenuity has yet put into the hands of man, and which is of British conception, growth and completion, its immortal author has new-modelled the industry, not merely of his own country, but given the means of unexpected comforts to the whole civilized species, and a new impulse to the human mind—Application of burning gas to public and domestic purposes, on the most extensive scale; the introduction of Welsh china, inferior to none in whiteness; of ironstone china, in imitation of Indian, and which can with difficulty be broken; of the lifeboat, life-preserver, Congreve rockets, Shrapnell shot, improvements in boring cannon; and improvements in manufacturing gunpowder—By means of the galvanic battery, Sir Humphry Davy has operated the decomposition of at least twenty substances, earths, alkalis, acids, &c. before thought simple; and by introducing a great number of new agencies into the chemical science, subverted a large portion of the theory unjustly attributed to Lavoisier. The atomic theory of chemical combination has been fully demonstrated by experiment and calculation, and many splendid discoveries made in optical and astronomical science. To geography Britain has contributed largely within the last half century; and the exertions she has made within the same period for the general diffusion of knowledge, and above all of religious knowledge, form the brightest feature in her national annals.

Welsh Language and Literature.] The Welsh language is radically independent of both European and oriental dialects, though several modern languages are intermixed with it. Nennius, who wrote in the 9th century, mentions the bards Talhaian, Tatangun, Nuevin, Bluchbar, and Cian, as renowned for their skill in poetry; and Aneurim, Taliesin, and Llywarch the aged, as professors of the same art, so early as the 6th century. The oldest indisputably genuine work in Welsh is Howel Dha's Laws, a work of the 10th century. An English student of the Welsh tongue is certainly liable to be perplexed by a preposterous application of letters, with which he is familiar, to the expression of sounds very different from those which he has been accustomed to assign to them. Still it is to be regretted that so little attention has been paid by British scholars to the acquisition of the ancient British dialects. The number of scholars who have some knowledge of Latin, Greek, or French, in proportion to those who know any thing of the Welsh language, is probably at least as 500 to one. The Denbigh Eisteddfod, or Bardic session and annual musical festival, will, it is to be hoped, do much to preserve the purity of the Welsh language, and to cultivate its poetry and music. Dictionaries of the Welsh language have been published by W. Owen, W. Evans, Walters, and Richards.

CHAP. VIII.—RELIGION.

Historical Sketch of the introduction of Christianity into Britain.]
It is impossible for us to fix with precision the era of the introduction¹⁶ of

"*The Druids.*" The primeval religion of Britain was Druidism,—an institution composed of the gloomy barbarity of a bloody superstition on the one hand and of the germs of moral excellence on the other; and which seems to have prevailed not only in Britain, but in Gaul, Germany, and Scandinavia. The name, *druid*, seems to be derived from the Celtic word *deru*, or the Greek *drus*, both signifying 'an oak'; and therefore may be supposed to signify the 'man of the oak' or 'the dweller or frequenter of oak-groves.' Both historians and antiquarians are agreed that there were three orders of men in high esteem among all the Celtic tribes: and these were the Druids, the Faids, and the Bards. The Druids presided over the education of youth, and were the ministers and teachers of religion, and administrators of justice. The Faids, called also Erwates, Ovydd, Eubages, and Vates or Prophets, were the officiating priests and physicians. They explained the productions and laws of nature, and composed hymns in honour of the Divinity, which were sung to the music of harps at their sacred solemnities. They were indeed the hallowed musicians, the religious poets, and the venerated prophets of all the Celtic tribes, who believed them divinely inspired in their poems, and favoured by the Divinity with revelations about the nature of things, the will of the gods, and of future events. The Bards, or Shannachies, during the existence of Druidism, were a much more lowly order. They were merely the annalists, poets and genealogists of the age. Strabo says that the Gauls had three orders of men: Bards, Priests, and Druids; that it was the province of the Bards to study poetry, and compose songs in honour of their deceased heroes; that the Priests presided over divine worship; and that the Druids, besides studying moral and natural philosophy, determined all controversies, and had some authority even in war. Cæsar comprehends all the three orders under the name of Druids; and says that they teach their disciples a vast number of verses, which they must get by heart. Their verses were a record of the history, the laws, and even the religion of the people. While the Druids were the priests and augurs of the Celtic nations, particularly those of Gaul and Britain; the Bards were strictly speaking the literary professors.

The Bards and Scalds of Scandinavia and Britain were similar to the *aoidoi* of the ancient Greeks. Like them, they were admitted to the chief places at feasts and sung the praises of heroes. By Homer—himself an *aoidos* or bard,—they were reckoned divine, prophetic, and most venerable. The bard Phemius, forced by Penelope's suitors to sing at their feasts, was spared by Ulysses, when he slaughtered the wooers, in consequence of the intercession of Telemachus,

"Oh, father, mix not with those impious dead
The man divine, forbear that sacred head!"

And in the court of Alcinoüs, king of Phæacia, we find Demodocus, the bard, seated aloft on a radiant throne, with his lyre beside him, and from the hand of Ulysses receiving a delicious morsel from the chine.

The precise origin of Bardism, as an institutional system, is not very clearly defined. That it arose from a natural predilection in the ancient Britons to the arts of poetry and music, we may safely surmise; but the period of its elevation to its high and perfected institution is exceedingly obscure. Those curious relics, 'The Triads of the Isle of Britain,' commemorate Tydain Tact Awen, that is, 'Tydain, the Father of the Muses,' as the first who reduced poetry to a system, and thus laid the foundation of Bardism. With this exception, all that we confidently know is that it was coeval with or emanated from Druidism.

The Druids were dressed in very long garments, of six different colours; whereas those of the nobility—the king excepted, whose garment had seven—were allowed to have only four, and these only reaching to the knee. They wore their hair short, and their beards were permitted to grow to an excessive length, the upper lip excepted. They carried in their hands a long white rod, called 'the wand of divination,'—an oval amulet incased in gold was suspended about their neck,—and a white surplice thrown over their shoulders, especially when they officiated. Their necks were also decorated with gold chains, and their arms and hands with bracelets. The head of the order was called the *Archdruid*, and was elected by a plurality of voices; his station was honourable, and his power and wealth were great.

What were the religious tenets of the druids it is impossible fully and precisely to determine. That they were monotheists we have no proof; though some antiquarians would have us believe so. It is certain that they worshipped the sun, who was called *Baal, Bel, Belin, De Dia, Jol, Enus, Teuater, Deu-Taiih*, 'the god of journeys,' or, as some will have it, *Deu Tait*, 'the father-god,' *Taran*, or *Tharamis, Keren*, 'the Lord of light,' *Grianus, Grannius, Carnus*, &c. &c. They seem also to have worshipped the moon, but under what names we are ignorant. *Jow*, or Jupiter, presiding over a vast empire, was also an object of their adoration; as also *Cwr*, or Mercury, *Oinas*, or Venus, and *Onsana*,

Christianity into Britain. We labour under an utter destitution of historical records concerning that most important event; and it would be abusing the understandings, and wasting the time of our readers, were we to repeat the idle tales and lying legends which have been coined by cunning and interested monks regarding this event. It is very possible that the

or Minerva; together with a prodigious number of genii, presiding over woods, lakes, rivers, and mountains. The *Elves*, or Elfa of the Saxon, and *Elphin* of the Caledonians were objects of respect and veneration. They seem to have been the same with the Nymphs of Greek and Roman story, and the *Peris* of the Persian mythology. They were, according to Dr Jamieson, distributed into the following classes: the *Dun-elfen* were the Castalides, or elves of the rocks. *Munt-elfen*, the Oreads, or elves of the mountains. *Wudie-elfen*, the Dryades or elves of the woods. *Fild-elfen*, the moldes, or elves of the fields. *Wyldo-elfen*, the Hamadryades, or wild elves. *Berg-elfen*, the Oreads, or rock-elves. *Land-elfen*, the Ruricola, or land-elves. *Waster-elfen*, the Naiades, or fountain-nymphs. *Sacter-elfen*, the Nereides, or sea-nymphs. There were also the *Gwyllion*, Children of the evening, Prophetesses, who chanted mournful psalmes from the bosoms of lakes.

The immortality of the soul and the doctrine of transmigration were taught by the Druids. Their rites were solemn and mysterious, and performed in appropriate places, consecrated for that purpose. They formed their roofless temples, consisting of circles of stones, their *corneids* or sacred mounts, and their *cromlichs* or stone tables, with the other appendages of their worship, in impervious groves, darkened by the shadowy foliage of oak-woods. The *mistletoe* which grows on the oak was held by them in the highest veneration; and a solemn festival was annually kept at the cutting of the *mistletoe*, by the arch-druid, on the 10th of March, which was their new-year's-day. The 1st of May, midsummer-day, and the 1st of November, were also annually solemnized. The *belain*, or *belian*, was a druidic festival, celebrated on the 1st of May. It is derived from *Baal* or *Bel*, a Lord; and *Teine* in Gaelic, *Tuine* in Irish, and *Tun* in Welsh, signifies fire. Thus *Baal-Teine*, *Bel-Tan*, 'the fire of Bel.' It is said, however, to have another signification, and to mean the festal fire for the vegetation of the year. On this occasion great rejoicings were made, and a large bonfire kindled, to hail the return of the sun, that beneficent luminary. The *Samhain* was another druidic festival, held on hallow-eve, or e'en, which, in Gaelic, still retains that name, as we are informed by Smith and Jamieson. The term means 'the fire of peace.' At this period the Druids held their annual asizes, when all the fires were extinguished in the country the preceding evening, in order to be supplied from the consecrated fire. Of this no criminal was to have a share, till he had undergone the sentence adjudged; and till then, none were allowed to show him the least office of humanity, without incurring the same penalty.

Like the ancient Persians, they held it unlawful to build temples to the gods, or to worship within walls and under roofs. They practised augury, magic, lots, and an infinitude of religious rites and ceremonies. The Druids have been charged with offering human sacrifices; but the charge has been attempted to be parried by those who, unwilling to believe the doctrine of human depravity, have laboured hard to extenuate the crimes of paganism, by supposing that the victims thus immolated were murderers, and that strangers might mistake such immolations for human sacrifices. The defence is but weak, and the supposition precarious. The universal prevalence of human sacrifices throughout the pagan world is too strongly established to be now refuted. Caesar, speaking of the Gallic Druids, says, that it is their opinion that for the life of a man nothing but the life of a man can be rendered. And Cicero observes, that if, at any time, induced by terror, they judge that the gods must be propitiated, they pollute their altars and temples. The druidic grove of the Massilian Gauls is described by Lucan in terms almost too shocking to relate. It was the custom of the Gallic Druids to set up an immense gigantic wicker figure of a man, in the texture of which they entwined about 100 human victims, and then consumed the whole as an offering to their offended gods. Tacitus also represents it as the constant custom of the Druids of the Isle of Man to sacrifice to their gods the prisoners taken in war. In the extended wilds of Arduenne, in the Netherlands, and the great Hercynian forest, places set apart for this diabolical practice abounded; and Adam of Bremen represents the druidic groves of Upsala, in Sweden, as not having a single tree that was not revered as gifted with a portion of the divinity, because stained with human gore and foul with putrefaction. We are told by Locenius, that the Swedes, when afflicted with famine, in the first year immolated bulls,—in the second, men,—and in the third the king himself, as an atonement to Odin. Procopius testifies that the inhabitants of Shetland offered human sacrifices. It was usual with the people of Marseilles, in France, to offer a human victim annually. The custom of offering 99 men every January, as an atonement to Odin, was practised by the Danes and Norwegians till the 10th century. Diodorus Siculus, speaking of the Celts, says that they venerate highly those who disclose futurity, either from the flight of birds, or the inspection of the entrails of victims; and that on solemn occasions, they practise an astonishing and incredible mode of divination. They take a man who is to be sacrificed, and kill him with one stroke of a sword, above the midriff; and by observ-

light of the gospel may have reached Britain, by the way of France, (then called Transalpine Gaul,) before the conclusion of the 1st, or not long after the commencement of the 2d century. As no churches are recorded to have existed in France before the 2d century, we may warrantably infer that none existed in Britain till some time after they were estab-

ing the posture in which he falls, his various convulsions, and the direction in which the blood flows from his body, they form their predictions according to certain rules left them by their ancestors. Thus we have established on unquestionable authority, that human sacrifices constituted a chief part of druidic worship; and that the benevolence of the Druids, like the benevolence of the Hindoo Bramins, is a fiction and nonentity. We shall next notice the religion of the Saxons and Danes, previous to their receiving Christianity.

The Anglo-Saxons and Danes.] As the Anglo-Saxons, who settled in Britain in the 5th and 6th centuries, came from the north-west corner of Germany, contiguous to Denmark, we have reason to believe that their religion was the same, or very nearly so, with that of the pagan Danes.

We know not precisely what were the different degrees and orders in the hierarchy of the Anglo-Saxon and Danish priests; or whether, like the Druids, they were divided into several classes, who performed distinct parts in their religious rites. It is said that in a celebrated temple of Odin, the chief deity of both the Saxons and Danes, there were 12 *Drottes* of superior dignity, who presided over all religious affairs, and governed all the other priests. There was one who bore the name and exercised the office of the chief priest in the kingdom of Northumberland; and, therefore, probably one in each of the other kingdoms of the heptarchy. Among the Danes and Saxons—as among many other ancient nations—the priesthood was hereditary. The Danes and Saxons had also priestesses, who officiated in the temples of their female deities; and Frigg, their chief goddess, was served by kings' daughters and ladies of the highest rank. It does not appear that the Danish or Saxon priests acted the part of legislators and supreme judges among them, as did the Druids among the ancient Britons and Caledonians. The Northumbrian chief priest, or Drotte, bitterly complained—as we are told by Bede—that he had reaped very little honour or advantage from all his religious services. “There is not one of your subjects (said he to king Edwin) who hath served the gods with so much devotion as I have done, and yet there are many of them who have received more ample rewards and greater honours, and have prospered much better in all their affairs. If these gods had any power, would they not exert it in my favour, who have worshipped them with so much zeal?”

The religious notions of the Anglo-Saxons and Danes are better known than those of many nations of antiquity, because their priests did not affect that mysterious secrecy which the British Druids and other ancient priests did; and a very curious system of their fabulous theology called the *Edda*, has been translated into English by Mr Mallet. The Saxon and Danish priests believed and taught the immortality of the human soul, and a state of rewards and punishments after death; rejecting the druidical doctrine of the metempsychosis, or transmigration of souls, as an absurd fiction. The place of rewards they called *Valhalla*, and the place of punishments *Nistheim*, or the abode of evil, where *Hela* dwelt. In *Valhalla*, all brave men and good, and in *Nistheim* all cowards and bad men, were to reside to the end of this world, when the heavens and the earth, and even the gods themselves, were to be consumed by fire. After this general conflagration, a new and more glorious world was to arise out of the former. The heroes, with all good men, were to be admitted into *Gimle*, a palace built of shining gold, more beautiful than *Valhalla*; and cowards, assassins, false swearers, and adulterers, were to be confined in *Nustrande*, a palace built of the carcasses of serpents, and more dismal than *Nistheim*. The moral precepts chiefly inculcated by the Saxon and Danish priests were three: to worship the gods,—to do no wrong,—and to fight bravely in battle. They occasionally recommended many other virtues; and it will not be easy to find a more beautiful collection of prudential and moral maxims than in the *Hovamaai*, or sublime discourses ascribed to Odin. Whether Odin was originally the name of the one true God, among the first colonies who came from the east and peopled Germany and Scandinavia; or whether it was assumed by a mighty conqueror from the east, who, at the head of a horde of adventurers, over-ran the north of Europe, and erecting a mighty empire, claimed the honours paid to that deity; or whether it was the name of a deified hero, is wholly uncertain. However this may be, he was believed to be the god of war, who gave victory and revived courage in the conflict. He was also the patron god of arts and artists. *Frea*, or *Frigga*, the wife of Odin, was, next to her husband, the most revered deity among the heathen Saxons, Danes, and other northern nations. In the most ancient times, she was the same with the goddess *Hertha*, so devoutly worshipped by the German tribes, as we are informed by Tacitus; but when Odin afterwards became the chief Scandinavian divinity, his wife, *Frea*, usurped the honours formerly paid to mother Earth. She was esteemed the goddess of love and pleasure. The sixth day of the week was consecrated to her, and still bears her name. *Thor*, the eldest and bravest of the sons of Odin and *Frea*, was, after his parents, the most revered object of supersti-

ished in France. Tertullian, who died A. D. 202, is the most ancient writer who attests the existence and prevalence of Christianity in Britain; but his authority, unless corroborated by other evidences, must be received with caution, for an apparent proneness to exaggeration is visible in his first and second Apologies. Of this, however, we are certain, that Christianity had made considerable progress in our island, previous to the time of

*Christ
Tertullian*

tious adoration. He was believed to reign over all the aerial regions, consisting of 540 halls,—to launch the flaming bolt,—and direct the meteors, winds, and storms. To him they prayed for favourable winds, refreshing rains, and fruitful seasons. To him the fifth day of the week was consecrated, and still bears his name. Besides these three, a prodigious number of inferior divinities, male and female, were adored by the Anglo-Saxons and Danes: *Balder*, the second son of Odin and Frea, was the god of light; *Njord*, the god of waters; *Tyr*, the god of champions; *Brage*, the god of orators and poets; and *Heimdall* was the doorkeeper of the gods and the guardian of the rainbow. A malevolent, cunning, and powerful spirit, called *Loki*, was by some esteemed a god; by others, an enemy both to gods and men; by all, an object of superstitious terror. Odin and Frea had 11 daughters, all goddesses, viz. *Eira*, the goddess of medicine; *Gefiona*, of virginity, *Fulla*, of dress; *Freyja*, of true love; *Lofna*, of reconciliation; *Vasa*, of vows; *Snotra*, of good manners, *Gna*, the messenger of Frea, &c. In short, all the northern nations, and among them our Saxon and Danish ancestors, believed that the sun, moon, stars, earth, sea, lakes, rivers, woods, and mountains, were inhabited and ruled by certain genii, capable of doing much hurt or benefit to mankind, and therefore entitled to some degree of veneration.

The acts of worship paid to their gods, were these four: songs of praise and gratitude,—prayers and supplications,—offerings and sacrifices,—incantation and divining rites, in order to express their admiration of their perfections, and gratitude for their benefits. To Odin they were directed to offer horses, dogs, and falcons, and sometimes cocks or a fat owl, by way of sacrifice. To Frigga they offered the largest hog; and to Thor, fat oxen and horses. These victims being slain before the altar, their blood was received into a vessel prepared for the purpose, and some part of it sprinkled on the assembly; the entrails were afterwards inspected by the priests to discover the will of the gods from their appearance. Some of the flesh was burnt upon the altar, and on the rest the priests and people feasted. At these feasts, their favourite beer and ale were not forgotten, of which they drank deep and frequent draughts in honour of their gods, putting up some prayer or wish at every draught. In famines, or other national calamities, or on the eve of some dangerous war, human victims were offered up at the altars of their gods, by our pagan Anglo-Saxon and Danish ancestors. These unhappy beings were commonly chosen from among criminals, captives, or slaves; but, on some pressing occasions, persons of the highest dignity were not spared.

None were more addicted to divination, or made greater efforts to penetrate into futurity and discover the counsels of heaven, than the ancient Danes and Saxons. Besides those arts of divining practised by their priests, in common with those of other nations, they had many peculiar to themselves. They gave great credit to the predictions of old women, who pretended to consult the dead, to converse with familiar spirits, and to have many other ways of discovering the will of the gods and the issue of important undertakings. In very ancient times, the Danes and Saxons, like the Britons, had no covered temples, but worshipped their gods in sacred groves, and circles of rude stones. Gradually however they began to build temples, and at length erected some of incredible grandeur and magnificence. There were many of such temples adorned with idols, in different parts of England, while the Anglo-Saxons continued pagans; but (as we are informed by Bede) they were all destroyed at their conversion to Christianity. They also celebrated certain great festivals with peculiar solemnity. One of the greatest of these was celebrated at the winter-solstice. It was called 'the mother night,' and also *Jule*, or *Yule*, a name by which the festival of Christmas is still known in many parts of Scotland, and in some parts of England. The heathen *Jule* was observed in honour of the god Thor, not only with sacrifices, but with feasting, drinking, dancing, and every possible demonstration of mirth and joy. The second great festival was kept during the second moon of the year, in honour of the goddess Frea, much in the same manner as the former. The third and greatest festival was celebrated in honour of Odin, in the beginning of the spring, before they set out on their warlike expeditions. Besides these three great festivals in honour of their three greatest gods, they kept many others at different seasons in honour of their inferior gods.

Such was the vain, absurd, and cruel superstition that reigned over all those parts of England possessed by the Saxons and Danes, previous to their conversion to Christianity. The intelligent reader will observe, that though it bore a general resemblance to the ancient Druidism of the ancient Britons in several particulars, it differed greatly from it in other respects. The Saxons and Danish priests were neither held in such profound veneration, nor enjoyed so much power, especially in civil affairs, as the Druids; and their speculative opinions in many things were very different; as were also the objects, the seasons, and ceremonies of their worship.

Don't forget

Constantine the Great. Constantine himself was a native of Britain, having been born at York, where Constantius Chlorus, his father, then emperor of the West, resided. But we know very little about the progress of Christianity in this country till the rise of the Pelagian heresy, at the commencement of the 5th century. Pelagius, that noted heresiarch, was himself a native of Wales, and his real name was Morgan; his coadjutor in spreading the heresy which bears his name, was Coelestius, an Irishman. Their peculiar opinions made considerable progress among the British Christians; but were at length suppressed by the efforts of Germanus and his disciples. Several bishops, from Britain, sat in the famous council of Nice, A. D. 325; as, also, at the council of Sardus, 347; and of Ariminum in Italy, and Arles in France; and, in A. D. 519, an ecclesiastical synod of all the British clergy was held by St David, archbishop of Caerleon, and uncle of the famous king Arthur, for the professed object of extirpating the remains and preventing the revival of the Pelagian heresy. But, however flourishing and prosperous the state of Christianity may have been in early times in this country, it was doomed to suffer a total eclipse, and almost utter extinction, upon the arrival of the pagan Saxons. The period when the innumerable hordes of Scythians, from every quarter, burst with irresistible violence upon the Roman empire, when "clouds upon clouds successively rose in the sky, till the congregated host, gathering fresh terror as it rolled along, obscured the sun of Italy, and sunk the western world in night,"—was peculiarly calamitous to Britain by obliging the Romans to abandon the island. Druidism had been formally proscribed by them; but before the arrival of the Saxons, the northern parts of Britain had been quite depopulated by the successful and oft-repeated inroads of the barbarous Caledonians, then called Scots and Picts; the Saxons completed the desolation. They murdered numbers of the Christian clergy, and their pagan enmity was fostered and inflamed by their long and bloody contests with the Christian Britons. It was not till A. D. 570, that the first rays of Christianity dawned upon the Saxon conquerors of Britain, by means of a marriage-alliance between one of their petty monarchs and the daughter of Cherebert, king of France, a princess warmly attached to Christianity.

In A. D. 596, the famous Austin was sent over by Pope Gregory, to effect the full conversion of the Britons. He, with 40 other monks, landed in England, and was kindly received by Ethelbert, who assigned Canterbury as a place of residence to them. They entered it in solemn procession, carrying the picture of Christ before them and a silver cross, and singing a hymn. Their pious endeavours were crowned with such success, that the king and most of his subjects were in a short time pronounced to be converted; and no fewer than 10,000 of them were baptized on one Christmas day. Upon the news of Austin's success, at the papal court, more missionaries were sent over, and a valuable library of books, vestments, sacred utensils, and holy relics. Austin's efforts to reduce the Welsh Christians to dependence on the papal authority failed, however, of success; and, in revenge, the ghostly abbot threatened them with the wrath of heaven and the hostilities of the English. The East Saxons were soon after converted by Mellitus, and a bishop's see was established at London, their capital, in A. D. 610. The Northumbrians were next converted, which auspicious event was accelerated by the marriage of their king, Edwin, with Edelburg, a daughter of Ethelbert, king of Kent. That princess having the free exercise of her religion secured to her and her

household, was accompanied into her new dominions by a missionary named Paulinus, whose labours were so successful, that Edwin himself, and the high priest, Coifi, many of the nobility, and great multitudes of the common people, renounced paganism and were baptised. By the influence of Edwin and Paulinus, Carpwald, king of the East Angles, and many of his subjects, were converted; and, as a reward for the services of Paulinus, Edwin erected a bishop's see at York, and even obtained an archbishop's pall for him from Pope Honorius. The Northumbrians, upon the defeat and death of Edwin, in A. D. 938, apostatized, but were soon after reconverted—or in other words compelled nominally to embrace Christianity—by their king, Oswald, who had been instructed in the Christian religion, during his captivity in Scotland, by the Culdees. These religious sent Aidan, one of their number, with Oswald, into his kingdom; and the former was appointed bishop of Lindisfarne, or Holy Island, to which the see had been transferred from York. The East Angles, who had apostatized, were restored in the same manner by their prince Sigebert, who during his exile among the Franks had been converted to Christianity. At his restoration to his kingdom, he brought over Felix, a Burgundian priest, who was appointed the first bishop of the East Angles. The West Saxons were converted by Berinus, who was greatly indebted for his success to the arrival of Oswald, the Northumbrian, at the court of Cynigfel, king of Wessex, in A. D. 635, to claim the hand of that monarch's daughter. A bishop's see was founded at Dorchester, of which Berinus was the first bishop. The Mercians were converted about the middle of the 7th century. This was also brought about by a marriage-alliance between the eldest son of the Mercian monarch with Alchfida, daughter of Oswi, king of Northumberland, who upon his return home, carried with him four missionaries, who preached the gospel in Mercia. One of these four, a Scotsman, was ordained the first bishop of the Mercians by bishop Finan.¹⁷

To render the union of the church of England and Rome as perfect as possible, a grand council was summoned by Theodore of Tarsus, archbishop of Canterbury, at Hertford in 673. At this council Theodore

¹⁷ From the above it appears, that the English, in the kingdoms of Kent and Wessex, were converted to the Christian faith by French and Romish missionaries,—while the Mercians and Northumbrians received the light of the gospel from Scottish preachers. This circumstance gave rise to a keen controversy concerning the time of keeping Easter and the form of the ecclesiastical tonsure. The Romish missionaries, and their churches, kept Easter on the first Sunday after the 14th, and before the 22d day of the first moon after the vernal equinox; and those churches planted by the Scottish missionaries kept that festival on the first Sunday after the 13th, and before the 21st day of the same moon. Therefore, when the 14th day of that moon happened to be a Sunday, those of the Scottish communion celebrated Easter festival on that day; whereas those of the Romish communion did not celebrate theirs till the Sunday after. To determine this mighty affair, a famous council was held at Whitby, in Yorkshire, by Oswi the Northumbrian king. The Scottish orators in this council maintained that their way of observing Easter was prescribed by St John, the beloved disciple; and the Romanists, with no less confidence, affirmed that theirs was instituted by St Peter, the prince of the apostles, and the doorkeeper of heaven. Oswi was particularly struck by the latter circumstance, and both parties acknowledging that Peter kept the keys of heaven, the king declared that he would not disoblige the celestial porter upon any account, but was resolved to observe all his institutions to the utmost of his power, lest he should turn his back upon him when he came to the gate of heaven. The whole assembly applauded this sagacious declaration, and the Roman orators obtained a complete victory, at which many of the Scottish clergy were so much offended that they left England and returned into their own country. Though they are censured by Bede for this abominable error, yet he allows them to have been learned, pious, and virtuous, and commends them for their contempt of riches, and their great diligence in discharging their ministerial duties. No longer opposed by the Scottish clergy, the Romanists carried every thing their own way; and all the English churches were reduced to a perfect conformity with the church of Rome.

obtained the consent of the ecclesiastics to a number of canons which he had brought from Rome, demanding perfect uniformity among all the English churches. Besides this union among the English churches, and conformity to the Romish church, which was brought about by Theodore, several new doctrines and practices were now introduced. Amongst these, was auricular or secret confession to a priest as necessary to absolution. Theodore, by his address, obtained a recognition of the metropolitan power in his person over all the English clergy, and exercised it with no little severity. He died in the 89th year of his age.

In the course of the 7th century, many monasteries were founded in all parts of England. They were designed, at first, for the seats of bishops and their clergy, and for the residence of secular priests, who preached and administered the sacrament over all the neighbouring country. They were also seminaries of learning for educating the youth. No vows of celibacy or poverty were at first required of the priests inhabiting these monasteries; but these were soon after enjoined by successive popes and metropolitans. The monasteries being well-built, and richly endowed, drew such numbers to enjoy a lazy and comfortable life in them, that they soon became intolerable evils to the commonalty. The idea first promulgated about the end of the 7th century, that as soon as any person put on the habit of a monk, all the sins of their youth were forgiven, induced so many to resort to these monasteries, that their numbers would seem incredible, were it not well-attested; in fact this circumstance proved the ruin of the Anglo-Saxons, and paved the way for the conquests of the Danes, who, finding the monasteries so well-stored with booty and provisions, plundered and destroyed them so effectually, that, before the end of the 9th century, there was hardly a monastery or monk left in England. But the converted Danes soon fell into the same error as their predecessors; and the rage for monasteries broke out anew in the 10th century.¹⁸

Superstition, the child of ignorance, manifested herself in England about the 7th century, in an excessive veneration for relics. Few Christians

¹⁸ This passion was greatly aided by the following circumstance, the effect of which was carefully fostered by an artful priesthood. A notion prevailed at that time over all Europe, that the day of judgment was at hand. It took its rise from a passage in the Apocalypse, and threw the people into the greatest consternation. They imagined that St John had predicted, that, at the expiry of 1000 years from the birth of Christ, Satan would be loosed from his prison, and Antichrist appear; and that the destruction and conflagration of the world would follow these awful events. Hence prodigious numbers of people abandoned all worldly concerns, and, endowing monasteries with all their lands and effects, hastened to the Holy Land; where they expected that Christ would descend from heaven to judge the world. Others devoted themselves solemnly to the service of the churches, hoping that the supreme Judge would diminish the severity of their sentence, and be more favourable and propitious to them as they had made themselves slaves to his ministers. When an eclipse of the sun or moon happened to be visible, the cities were deserted; and the people fled to caverns, or hid themselves amongst craggy rocks. In many places, palaces, and noble edifices, both public and private, were pulled down, or suffered to decay; being supposed to be of no use, since the consummation of all things was at hand. In a word, it is beyond the power of the historian to express, and it surpasses the most vivid imagination of the poet to describe, the confusion, the horror, and despair, that pervaded all ranks of the miserable people in this most inauspicious period, "denominated, for its barbarism and wickedness," says Cæsar Baronius, "the iron age,—for its dulness and stupidity, the age of lead,—and for its blindness and ignorance, the age of darkness." This terror was artfully improved by the priests; it occasioned immense donations of land, money, &c. towards endowing and supporting monasteries; and these donations were all prefaced with the following words: "The end of the world being at hand." By these continually increasing and extravagant grants, the clergy, at the death of Edward the Confessor, were possessed of more than one-third of all the lands of England; and these exempted from all taxes, and even from military service.

thought themselves safe from diabolical machinations, unless they carried about with them a relic of some saint: and no church could be dedicated without a quantity of this sacred trumpery. Kings, princes, and wealthy prelates, purchased pieces of the cross, or whole legs and arms of apostles; while poorer devotees were obliged to content themselves with the toes and fingers of inferior saints. Agelnoth, archbishop of Canterbury, when at Rome, in 1021, purchased from the pope, an arm of St Augustine, bishop of Hippo, for 6000 lb. weight of silver, and 60 lb. weight of gold. Images, though early used in churches, were not worshipped till the middle of the 9th century. Transubstantiation was introduced about the end of the 11th century, by the famous Lanfranc, archbishop of Canterbury, and the opponent of the great Berenger, the zealous and steady adversary of that most irrational doctrine. Masses were early introduced into England; and the council of Castle Hythe, held in 816, determined with great accuracy the number of masses to be celebrated for different individuals according to their rank. By another canon, enacted in 928, the clergy were enjoined to sing fifty psalms for the king every Friday, in every monastery and cathedral church. In these times, public worship consisted chiefly in psalmody; and in some churches and larger cathedrals, this exercise was continued day and night uninterruptedly, by a constant succession of priests and laity. "This monastic melody was so charming," says an ancient historian, "that it enticed great numbers to build and endow monasteries." Even the private devotions of religious people in these times consisted almost entirely in singing a prodigious number of psalms. It was an article in these voluntary Anglo-Saxon associations called *gilds*, or fraternities, that each member should sing two psalms every day,—one for the living, and another for all the defunct members of the fraternity; and that, at the death of a member, each surviving member should sing six psalms for the repose of his soul. Most of those who could afford the expense of learning music, either went to Rome, or sent their sons thither; and the clergyman who sung best, was accounted the most profound theologian! The organ was introduced into churches in the course of the 9th century. Penance was strictly enjoined by the canons of several successive councils, and their degrees determined with the greatest precision. Long fastings of several years were prescribed as the proper penances for many offences; but these fastings were not in reality so formidable as they appeared at first sight, especially to the rich: for a year's fasting might be redeemed for thirty shillings,—a sum equal in our money to about £30, and a rich man might despatch a seven years' fast in three days, by procuring 840 men to fast for him three days, on bread and water and vegetables! This was called fasting by proxy. Pilgrimages were early introduced; and very few Englishmen, who could afford it, imagined that they could get to heaven without complimenting St Peter, who kept the keys of the celestial regions, with their personal appearance at Rome. As the common people did not understand Latin, they could not join in the public prayers and songs of the church, which were all in that language, but were allowed to affix any meaning they pleased to what was uttered, and to pray in their hearts for any thing they wanted, no matter how foreign to the real sense of the words.

Books were so scarce at the end of the 7th century, that Benedict Bishop was obliged to make no fewer than five journeys to Rome to purchase books for his monastery, by which he obtained a very valuable library. For one book, (a volume on cosmography,) king Alfred gave him an estate of 8

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hides, or as much land as eight horses could plough. At this rate, it was utterly impossible for the common people to have books; none but kings, bishops, and abbots, could purchase them at this period, and for some succeeding centuries. Slavery was practised in England both before and after the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons, and slaves formed a very valuable article of exportation to all parts of the continent. It was the sight of a number of English slaves, exposed in the market at Rome, that inspired Gregory the Great with the resolution of attempting the conversion of their countrymen to the Christian faith. The mildest fate that prisoners could expect, in the long-continued wars of the Britons and Saxons, the struggle of the several kingdoms of the heptarchy, and the contests of the English and Danes, was to be sold as slaves. The Jews were the principal slave-merchants, and found a good market for their wares among the Saracens in Spain and Africa. Several laws and canons of the Church were made, however, in England against selling Christian slaves to Jews or Pagans. The exportation of slaves continued to the Norman conquest, and the city of Bristol was a noted emporium of this ignominious and cruel traffic. Wulfstan, bishop of Worcester, at the period of the Norman invasion, cured the people of his city of the custom, received from their ancestors, of buying men and women in all parts of England, and exporting them to Ireland for the sake of gain, by preaching every Lord's day against that inhuman traffic. The credulity of the people in these times was excessive, and was cherished to the utmost by the monastic orders. St Dunstan, archbishop of Canterbury, the great patron of celibacy, and favourite of the monks, is the constant subject of panegyric in the legends of these dark ages, composed by monks, the only chroniclers of that dreary period. At the accession of the great Alfred in 871, there was hardly a person to the south of the Humber, who understood the common prayers of the church, or who was capable of translating a single sentence of Latin into English; but, to the south of the Thames, Alfred says in his letter to bishop Wulfsig, he did not recollect *one* who could do this. The venerable Bede was the only luminary in the 8th century who irradiated this age of darkness. He lived and died an humble retired monk, unambitious of ecclesiastical preferment, having dedicated his whole life to religious and literary subjects. His ecclesiastical history is the only performance which throws any light on the religious and literary state of his country in the times preceding the Saxon conquests down to his own era." John Scotus Erigena, a native of Ayr, in Scotland, was the greatest scholar of the 9th century, whether considered as a philosopher or a theologian. This celebrated Scotsman, abandoning his native country, at that time embroiled with intestine commotions, travelled on the continent, as far as Greece—if some writers may be believed—and there acquired a knowledge of the Greek language and philosophy. "But in whatever way," says that learned and accurate German, Brucker, "he acquired the knowledge of language and philosophy, it is certain that he had not only a very pleasant and facetious, but

"His works are very numerous, and astonishingly learned and ingenious, considering the age in which he lived. They have been often printed in different parts of Europe, as Paris, Basle, Cologne, &c. but never in Britain, the country to which the author was such an honour. A catalogue of Bede's several treatises our readers will find in the appendix to Henry's History of Great Britain, vol. II. "Bede's greatest defect," says that historian, "was credulity,—a fault not so much of the man as of the age. By his contemporaries, he was called the wise Saxon, and venerable Bede by posterity; and, as long as great modesty, uncommon piety, and great learning, united in one character, are the objects of veneration amongst mankind, the memory of Bede must be revered."

also a very acute and penetrating genius ; that in philosophy he had no superior ; and in languages no equal in the age in which he flourished." His philosophical tenets bear some resemblance to the pantheism of the celebrated atheist, Spinoza. He delighted in paradoxes, or seeming contradictions ; and appears to have held that the universe and all the things comprehended in it, were not only virtually but essentially in God ; that they flowed from him from eternity, and shall, at the consummation of all things, be resolved again into him, as their great fountain and origin. "After the resurrection," says he, "nature and all its causes shall be resolved into God, and then nothing shall exist but God alone." The 'Book of the Divisions of Nature,' in which these notions were promulgated, was commanded to be burned by order of the pope. Scotus was the father of the scholastic theology, which flourished so long in the Christian church. At the request of Charles the Great, he published a treatise upon the eucharist, against Paschasius Radbertus, the first who advanced the absurd idea of transubstantiation, and the corporeal presence of Christ in the sacrament. Elfric, archbishop of Canterbury (995 to 1000) was one of the most learned and voluminous writers of the age in which he lived. This prelate, conscious of the incapacity of the bulk of the clergy to instruct their flocks in the principles and precepts of religion, translated no fewer than 80 sermons or homilies, (Mosheim says 188) out of the Latin into the Saxon language, for their use. He also published a grammar and dictionary, and an Anglo-Saxon translation of the first books of the Scriptures, an ecclesiastical history, and a book of canons and rules for the government of the English church.

The clergy, by their successive encroachment upon the liberties of the people, and the rights of the sovereign, at last attained to such a height of spiritual and temporal domination, as to form an *imperium in imperio*, particularly after the era of the Norman conquest, when, under Anselm and Becket, the Church defied the utmost efforts of the high-spirited Norman princes. The power of the pope was consummated in England, when John agreed to resign his kingdom into the hands of his holiness, and to hold them of him, paying a tribute of 700 merks for England, and 300 for Ireland. This ignominious treaty was actually carried into effect at Dover, on the 15th of May, 1213, and continued in force till the reign of Edward III. a period of 150 years. Thus, England and Ireland were no longer one independent monarchy, but fiefs of the holy see, and their kings its humble vassals. In the long interval between the Norman conquest and the era of the Reformation, a period of near 500 years, few ecclesiastics occur, worthy the attention of the historian, as in any way remarkable for genius, learning, or piety. Thomas Bradwardine, archbishop of Canterbury, was one of those few luminaries who gilded the darkness a short time with his beams. This learned and pious person was born about the middle of the reign of Edward I. He studied at Oxford, and was one of the proctors of that university in 1325. He was the greatest mathematician and theologian of his day ; but like a palm tree in the midst of the desert, he put forth blossoms in vain, for the wind of the desert carried them away. Though he obtained the epithet of the profound, yet very little has come down to posterity of his life. He was confessor to Edward III. and attended him in his French wars. When first chosen archbishop of Canterbury by the monks, Edward refused to part with him ; but being chosen a second time, Edward consented to the election. Bradwardine did not long survive his consecration ; he died seven days after his arrival at Lambeth palace. It is only from his great work, entitled, 'The Cause of God against

the Pelagians,' that we are able to form a proper estimate of the man, who, amidst all the gloom which surrounded him, defended and illustrated the great doctrine of God's grace against the corruptions of the scholastic divines, who ranged themselves under the banners of Pelagianism, or at least of semi-Pelagianism. In this work, the piety, the deep humility, the metaphysical acumen, and argumentative genius of its author, are conspicuous. John Wyckliffe, rector of Lutterworth, was another eminent precursor of the reformation; he contributed, by his life and writings, to pave the way for that great event, by the translation of the scriptures into the vernacular tongue. His notions respecting the doctrines of election and grace were nearly the same with those of the English reformers. While divinity professor at Oxford, he published certain conclusions against transubstantiation and the pope's infallibility; he likewise denied that the church of Rome was the head of all other churches, or that St Peter had the power of the keys any more than any other of the apostles; and affirmed that the New Testament, or Gospel, is a perfect rule of life and manners, and ought to be read to the people,—that there were only two orders of spiritual rulers, viz. bishops and deacons,—that all imposition of human traditions as articles of faith, and all religious worship founded thereon, are superfluous and sinful,—that religious ceremonies are unlawful,—and that men ought not to be restricted to a prescribed form of prayer. All these opinions of Wyckliffe were, as might be expected, condemned as heresies at Rome; and positive orders were sent to England to stop the progress of Wyckliffism. But the reformer, supported by the powerful protection of John, duke of Lancaster, though driven from his professorship, closed his days in peace, at his rectory of Lutterworth. His works were ordered to be burnt, together with his bones, by the council of Constance, in 1425; but his doctrines were indestructible; and his disciples, called *Lollards*, (a nickname, as Mosheim observes, generally affixed to pious persons in these times, by their adversaries, as the terms pietist, puritan, and methodist, in after times,) increased after his death, although several sanguinary laws were passed against them by successive parliaments, and many, at different intervals, were committed to the flames. Nothing, however, contributed so effectually to promote the Reformation in Britain, as the glorious invention of printing,—an art which, next to Christianity itself, is the greatest blessing ever conferred upon the human race. The pillars of papal despotism were shaken in England, by an event the most unlikely that could have occurred to the human mind,—the wrath of Henry VIII. the most capricious tyrant that ever filled the English throne. On the history of that religious revolution which roused up the spirit of Christianity into vigorous action in our country,—on the instinctive exertions of the newly-awakened mind,—and the sacred fruits of that struggle betwixt light and darkness which now took place,—our limits forbid us to enter. Henry broke off the ecclesiastical connection of his kingdom with Rome at an early period of the Reformation; but as his views were merely selfish or political, the consequences of such a measure were not instantly apparent. The labours of enlightened and pious men, however, were soon eminently successful. Since the Restoration, the ecclesiastical government of England has been diocesan episcopacy; the mode of worship is liturgic; and the creed, as unfolded in the thirty-nine articles, is the same in all essential points with those of the other reformed churches. *Ecclesiastical Government of England and Wales.*] England is divided into 2 archbishoprics, and 25 bishoprics. The ranks of dignified clergy in the English church are numerous. Besides archbishops and

bishops, there are *deans* and *prebendaries*, who assist the bishop in the duties of his office; and *archdeacons*, who induct into benefices, reform abuses of smaller importance, and inspect the property of the church. The inferior clergy consist of *rectors* or *priests*, where the tithes are entire; *vicars* or *priests*, where the tithes have been converted into secular hands; and *curates*, who perform the ordinary duties of a priest in the place of one who has several benefices. The lowest order of clergy are *deacons*, who are empowered only to perform the ceremony of baptism, who read in the church, and, at the communion, hand the cup to the priest. To be eligible as a deacon, the candidate must be 23 years of age; a priest 24; and a bishop 30. The *church-wardens* superintend the repairs of the church, and receive the alms intended for the relief of the poor. They correspond to the elders in the church of Scotland.

The archbishop of Canterbury is *primate of all England*, and in dignity ranks next to the royal family. He holds four courts of judicature: the court of Arches, the court of Audience, the court of Prerogative, and the court of Peculiars. He has the power of Probate, with regard to all testaments within his province. His influence was formerly great, not only in the Church but in the State; of late, however, he seldom interferes in any thing beyond the precincts of his own diocese. The archbishop of York is styled *primate of England*; but his jurisdiction is far from being so extensive as that of the archbishop of Canterbury.

Of the bishops, those of London, Durham, and Winchester, rank above all the rest, who take place according to their seniority of consecration. The bishops enjoy considerable power in religious matters, and formerly exercised not a little in civil affairs. To them belong the ordaining of priests and deacons, the administration of the ceremony of confirmation, and the dedication of churches, and burial-grounds. Their jurisdiction extends to questions concerning births, marriages, deaths, the probate of testaments, and delinquencies of the inferior clergy. They have each a seat in parliament, except the bishop of Sodor and Man. They are peers of the realm, in right of the baronies attached to their sees, as barons by writ, and as barons by patent. In their own courts, they issue writs in their own names, not in that of the king; and in the same courts they are sole judges. In the see of Durham—which is a county palatine, and enjoys peculiar privileges—the king's judges sit only by permission of the bishop. Every bishop can depute his authority,—a privilege allowed to no other judge.

Archbishops and bishops are appointed in the same manner. When a vacancy takes place, application is made to the king, who, in fact, has the power of appointing the person who is to fill the office. He names the person to be chosen; but the chapter of prebendaries always perform a ceremonial choosing the person nominated. The royal assent, under the great seal, is then given to the election, and the person is confirmed and consecrated by the metropolitan. An archbishop is confirmed by four or more bishops. After his confirmation and consecration, the newly elected prelate does homage to the sovereign for the temporalities connected with the see, and compounds for the revenue of the first year—commonly called the *first fruits*—which is bestowed on the incorporation for increasing the benefices of the poor clergy.

Henry VIII. declared himself the supreme head of the national church,—an important prerogative which every sovereign since his time, except Mary, his daughter, has enjoyed.

The highest ecclesiastical court in England, is the *convocation*, which consists of the archbishops and bishops, who constitute what may be called the upper house, and 150 inferior members, who constitute what may be called the lower house of this court. The powers of the convocation were formerly considerable; but some imprudent members in queen Anne's time, showing a disposition to be troublesome, the court has been, since that time, almost annihilated. It is indeed still summoned with each parliament, but is never permitted to sit so long as to proceed to business. Inferior to the convocation, but superior to the highest metropolitan court, is the *court of delegates*.

Plurality of Benefices.] It is deeply to be regretted that the church of England should admit the practice of one clergyman holding several benefices to exist within her pale. Candour obliges us to observe, that however great and numerous the enormities of the Romish church while established in England were, the enormity of pluralities had no existence in that church. The practice is repugnant to every principle not only of christianity but of national interest and common justice. This growing abuse has, we trust, reached that height which will compel parliament soon to make it the subject of investigation.

Ecclesiastical Statistics.] We conclude this article with a full table of the ecclesiastical statistics of England and Wales at the close of the year 1829. From this table it appears that the number of Episcopal congregations in England are 9,983; and that of dissenting congregations of every Protestant denomination 6,422. The reported number of what are called the three dissenting denominations in England were:

	Presbyterian.	Independent.	Baptist.	Total.
In 1812	252	799	552	1583
In 1827	204	1203	805	2212
In 1829	258	1280	888	2435

The Methodist New Connexion, as they are called, possess 162 chapels. The Primitive Methodists, or, as they are vulgarly called, the Ranters, have 403 chapels. The Independent Methodists have upwards of 100 lay teachers. The Bryanites reckon about 13,000 members. The Wesleyan Protestant Methodists, a body of separatists principally at Leeds, have 2,480 members. The Episcopal missionary societies subscribed, in the United Kingdom, for 1828-9, £67,528; the Dissenting missionary societies, within the same period, £90,010. It would then appear that besides the provision made for the support and extension of religion by the established church, the Dissenters of England supply an additional provision of nearly equal extent for the same great purposes.

COUNTIES.	EPISCOPALITY, JURISDICTION.	CHURCH POPULATION.										DISSIDENT CONGREGATIONS.										SCHOOLS.									
		Cathedral Dignitaries.		Living in the gift of Government.		Ditto The Church.		Ditto The Universities.		Ditto Public Bodies.		Ditto Nobility and Gentry.		Ditto Inhabitants.		Total in each County.		Roman Catholics.	Presbyterians.	Independents.	Particular Baptists.	General Baptists.	Quakers.	Wesleyan Methodists.	Calvinistic Methodists.	Other Methodists.	Home Missionary and other Stations.	Total Number of Dissenting Congregations in each County.	National in Union.	British and Foreign.	Sabbath in Union.
Bedfordshire	Lincoln	13	16	11	18	68	115	10	1	8	21	6	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Berkshire	Salisbury	13	16	46	23	76	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Buckinghamshire	London	13	16	58	25	143	158	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Cambridgeshire	Cambridge	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Cheshire	Manchester	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Derbyshire	Derby	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Devonshire	Exeter	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Dorsetshire	Bath	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Dumfriesshire	Dumfries	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Durham	Durham	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Gloucestershire	Gloucester and Bristol	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Herefordshire	Hereford	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Hampshire	Winchester	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Hertfordshire	London and Hertford	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Hibernia	London and Dublin	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Humber	Leicester and Nottingham	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Man	Man	11	14	59	24	81	115	10	1	13	25	12	4	4	20	70	1	1	1	71	808	778	8,038	10,412	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Isle of Wight	Wight	11	14	59	2																										

CHAP. IX.—ENGLISH ISLANDS.

THE most remarkable islands connected with England, are those of Wight, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Scilly, Anglesea, and Man.

Wight.] The isle of Wight is separated from the coast of Hampshire by a narrow channel. Its length is about 21 miles, its breadth 13. The river Cowes, running from S. to N. divides it into two nearly equal parts. From E. to W. this island is intersected by a ridge of hills. The southern and western coasts are rocky and dangerous; but the eastern side has a safe roadstead, known by the name of St Helen's. To the N. of the ridge of hills just mentioned, the island is chiefly in pasturage; to the south it is arable; the ridge itself is of a chalky soil. The whole island is considered fertile; the air is mild, and the scenery presents many fine landscapes. There are few manufactures. The chief town is Newport; besides which it has two small boroughs, Newton and Yarmouth. On the W. are two high pointed rocks, well-known by the name of *the Needles*. There were formerly three; but in 1782, the tallest of the three—of which the elevation above low water-mark was 120 feet—was overthrown by the force of the waves.

Guernsey.] Guernsey, situated on the coast of Normandy, and formerly part of that province, is in length 12 miles, in breadth 9, and in circumference about 36 miles. The surface is hilly, and thinly wooded; but, were it properly cultivated, it seems not to be deficient in fertility. Cyder is the chief article of produce. The whole coast is naturally strong, being surrounded by rocks which render it difficult of access. It has a small breed of cattle, well-known by the name of the island. The inhabitants speak French, intermixed with many English words. The only town is Port St Pierre. Though the island be subject to Britain, it has its own laws, which seem to be closely allied to the feudal system. In 1821, there were 20,827 persons, comprised in 4,298 families, on the island. Of this population, 1,676 families were employed in agriculture.

Jersey.] The Romans conferred on Jersey the name of *Cæsarea*. Like Guernsey, Jersey was formerly part of Normandy, from the coast of which its distance is only 18 miles. Its length is 12 miles, its breadth 6, and its circumference 30 miles. The soil is fertile; the island is well-watered, and fruit-trees are extremely numerous. Great part of the island is occupied by orchards, so that grain is scarce; but fruit is so abundant, that it is affirmed 24,000 hogsheads of cyder have been made in one year. Jersey is said to have been formerly distinguished by a breed of sheep, with four, and sometimes with six horns; but this breed appears now to be extinct. The island is defended by several forts, and almost every part of the coast is of difficult access. The Corbière, a well-known promontory on the western coast, requires to be weathered with great circumspection. The principal manufactures are those of woollen stockings and caps. The towns are St Helier, with about 7,000 inhabitants, and St Aubins. Like the former island, Jersey is governed by its own laws. In 1781, a body of French made a descent here, but were compelled to yield themselves prisoners of war. The population, in 1821, consisted of 5,813 families, comprising 28,600 souls. Of these families, 2,310 were employed in agriculture. The merchants of St Helier engage extensively in the Newfoundland fishery.

Alderney.] Alderney, or Aurigni, as it is frequently called, is nearer the

coast of Normandy than either of the islands which have just been mentioned; being separated from it only by a strait or dangerous passage, known by the name of *the Race of Alderney*, in which the tide runs with extraordinary rapidity. This island is only 8 miles in circumference. The air is salubrious, and the soil is fertile. The number of inhabitants is about 1,000. It has a small town named St Anne, or in common parlance, *La Ville*.

Sark.] Sark, which is generally mentioned with these islands, is an inconsiderable spot, containing not more than 300 inhabitants.

Scilly Islands.] The group of islands, or rather of rocks, which have been denominated the Scilly islands, are situated to the W. of the Land's End, in Cornwall; and have become remarkable from the number of vessels which have been lost among them. The group is said to consist of 145 small islands, having some degree of vegetation, besides many bare rocks which have not been enumerated. The largest of these is called *St Mary*, and is only about 5 miles in circumference. It has a castle. The number of inhabitants is about 600. *St Agnes* is fertile, and contains 300 inhabitants. Its light-house is 51 feet high. The number of people scattered among all the other rocks does not exceed 100. The inhabitants spend much of their time in fishing; they also make considerable quantities of kelp, and are in general skilful pilots. Sea-fowl are very numerous; the cattle and horses are of diminutive size.

The *Eddystone light-house*, though it belong not to the Scilly group, may be mentioned in this place. The rocks upon which this light-house is situated, are 14 miles S.S.W. from the middle of Plymouth Sound. From their situation, they receive the most violent seas which come from the south and west. It long appeared desirable to erect a light-house upon them, yet the failure of every attempt, with this view, led to the conclusion that no light-house could be erected which should withstand the fury of the waves. An engineer, named Winstanly, undertook to erect a light-house, and completed it in 1700, but in 1703, while Winstanly himself was in it, a storm took place which swallowed up the light-house and its unfortunate builder. Another of wood was erected in 1709, which resisted the force of the sea, but was destroyed by fire in 1755. Smeaton, so well-known for his numerous undertakings, laid the foundation of one of stone in 1757, and completed it in two years. That celebrated engineer made use of every precaution in rendering the building sufficiently strong; and he seems to have been successful. It has now withstood many storms, and apparently has lost nothing of its primitive stability.

Anglesea.] Anglesea, already mentioned as a county of Wales, is divided from Caernarvonshire by a narrow channel called Menai. The length of this island is about 25 miles, its breadth about 18 miles. The coast next to Wales has much wood; the interior is more naked; but the whole is extremely fertile. This island is said to have been the principal seat of the ancient druids, and many monuments of their worship still remain here. The chief towns are Beaumaris and Newburgh.

On the Welsh coast are several islands of small importance, such as Caldy, Skomar, Burdsey, and some others.

Man.] This island—which, with regard to proximity of situation, may be said to belong to Scotland rather than to England—is 35 miles W. from the English coast; 12 S. from the coast of Scotland; and 40 E. from that of Ireland. In length it is 30 miles, and at its greatest breadth 15, though in general its breadth is not more than 8 miles. The principal towns are

Douglas and Castletown. A mountain called Snafel occupies the centre. The air is healthy, and the fertility considerable ; cattle and sheep are numerous, and the principal articles afforded for exportation are wool, hides, tallow, and grain. The minerals are black marble, limestone, slate, copper, lead, and iron. This island has a bishop, known by the title of the bishop of Sodor and Man, but he has not a seat in parliament. Its population, in 1821, amounted to 40,081 souls, comprised in 7,858 families, 3,520 of whom were engaged in agriculture. Man was, along with the western Scottish islands, seized by the Norwegians ; in whose hands it continued till the 13th century, when it was recovered by Alexander III. of Scotland. It was afterwards seized by Edward II. Under Henry IV. it was conferred on the family of Stanley, afterwards earls of Derby. By marriage it devolved to the family of Athol, from which the sovereignty was purchased by the king ; but it still retains some peculiar privileges.

SCOTLAND.

Boundaries and Extent.] Scotland is that part of the island of Great Britain which lies to the north of the river Tweed. It is every where bounded by the sea, except on the S.E., where it is joined to England. On the N. it has the great North Sea and the Pentland Firth, which separate it from the Orkney isles; on the E., the German Ocean; on the W., the Atlantic; and on the S., the Deucaledonian or Irish Sea, and the Solway Firth. The mainland extends from the Mull of Galloway, its most southern point, in $54^{\circ} 57'$, to Far-Out-Head, in $58^{\circ} 36'$, N. lat., and from Peterhead, in $1^{\circ} 40'$ W. long. from Greenwich, to Ardnamurchan point in $6^{\circ} 10'$ W. from the same meridian. Its greatest length is about 280 English miles, and its greatest breadth 160; but the form of this part of the island is so irregular, and the coast is so deeply indented by large arms of the sea, that it is difficult to mark with precision its average dimensions.¹

CHAP. I.—HISTORY.

Roman Invasion.] The Scots, like every nation whose origin is uncertain, claim a very high degree of antiquity; but the first part of their history which is properly authenticated, is that of their invasion by the Romans under Agricola,—an event which took place in the year 79. The Romans found the inhabitants of Scotland in a state of barbarity; and having vanquished them in some battles, and driven them to their inaccessible mountains rather than subdued them, erected a chain of forts which protected the frontiers of the Roman province in Britain. In the time of Adrian, the Roman frontier extended between Tynemouth on the E., and Carlisle upon the W. Having either voluntarily abandoned the country to the north of that line, or having been driven from it by force,

¹ The subjoined table is taken from the first volume of Thomson's Annals of Philosophy; it was constructed from Arrowsmith's large map of Scotland, by Mr Jardine and Sir George Stuart Mackenzie, after the following manner:—In order to ascertain, as precisely as possible, the superficies of Scotland, and of the different counties into which it is divided, a copy of Arrowsmith's map was selected, the paper of which was nearly of uniform thickness. A portion of each sheet, equal to 5000 English square miles, measured from the scale of the map, was carefully weighed; the balance used in this and the subsequent operations, being sensible to the hundredth part of a grain, when loaded with two pounds in each scale. Each county was then accurately separated by means of a sharp pointed knife, and its weight compared with that of the portion of the sheet to which it belonged. In those counties which contained a considerable portion of fresh-water lakes, the lakes also were separated and compared in a similar manner; and from these data, the surfaces of the land and water of each county were deduced, the term *water* in the Table being understood to indicate only the fresh water of considerable lochs, that of rivers and salt-water firths not being included. The map of Scotland constructed by Arrowsmith is undoubtedly the best that has hitherto been published. It does contain a few errors in the position of places, and a few in the courses of rivers; but none have yet been discovered that can affect the present calculation in any material degree. Indeed, if Arrowsmith took greater pains to render one part of his map more accurate than another, it was in ascertaining the boundaries of counties; and in doing so he was liberally aided by the Parliamentary Commissioners

Adrian secured the frontier by a rampart of turf between the points just mentioned. In the time of Antoninus Pius, the natives were again driven northwards to the chain of forts erected by Agricola, and that line was assumed as a frontier, and strengthened by a rampart connecting the fortifications. For some time, this rampart and that to the south were alternately accounted the frontiers of Scotland; and when the Romans withdrew their forces from Britain, for the purpose of protecting the interior parts of the empire, they assisted the Britons in erecting a wall of stone between Newcastle and Boulness, to enable them to repel the attacks of their northern neighbours.

for Highland roads and bridges. On the whole, the table may be regarded as the nearest approximation to the truth hitherto attempted. The method employed seems first to have been made use of by Dr Long of Cambridge, in 1742, to ascertain the proportion of the land to the water, on the surface of the globe. It may be observed that the standard Scottish acre is to the imperial one as 1.26118345 to 1.; hence to convert any of the following admeasurements of Scottish acres into imperial ones, multiply them by 1.26118345. We need scarcely add that the actual superficies of any country, more especially of such a hilly country as Scotland, must considerably exceed the result obtained by such a mode of admeasurement, which proceeds on the supposition that the whole is a flat plain surface. The surface presented by a hill must evidently always exceed the superficies of the area on which it stands.

Counties.	English Square Miles.	English Acres.	Scottish Acres.
Aberdeen - - -	1,234.50	1,238,080	981,560
Argyle - - - {	2,212.84	1,415,808	1,122,550
	785.65	502,816	398,645
	32.11	20,554	16,305
Ayr - - -	1,042.01	686,986	529,744
Banff - - -	632.00	404,864	320,986
Berwick - - -	478.52	306,258	242,905
Bute - - -	153.98	98,547	78,151
Caithness - - {	737.79	472,186	374,360
	6.45	4,128	3,273
	256.88	162,451	128,726
Cromarty - - {	8.57	5,485	4,348
	52.55	33,632	26,664
Clackmannan - -	1,271.40	813,696	645,118
Dumfries - - -	246.17	157,549	124,909
Dumbarton - - {	32.54	20,826	16,511
	387.40	247,994	196,685
Edinburgh - - -	472.02	302,085	239,507
Elgin - - -	521.44	333,722	263,568
Fife - - -	977.97	625,901	496,230
Forfar - - -	250.96	166,214	131,635
Haddington - - -	2,726.65	1,745,056	1,383,524
Inverness - - {	1,035.00	667,400	525,167
	83.79	53,626	42,406
	400.91	256,582	203,425
Kincardine - - -	83.83	53,752	42,536
Kinross - - - {	77.07	49,325	39,106
	814.51	521,286	413,289
Kiroudbright - -	993.61	635,910	504,166
Leamark - - -	154.27	98,933	78,130
Linlithgow - - -	196.65	125,836	99,762
Naïra - - - {	313.75	200,800	160,199
	9.15	5,866	4,643
Orkney - - -	516.68	330,637	262,157
Shetland Islands -	347.10	222,144	176,121
Peebles - - -	2,830.60	1,811,592	1,436,116
Perth - - - {	33.56	21,491	17,039
	232.49	148,794	117,967
Renfrew - - -	2,033.98	1,301,747	1,032,057
Ross - - - {	541.17	350,146	281,742
	30.43	25,229	20,002
	725.81	464,518	368,382
Roxburgh - - -	265.91	170,182	134,925
Selkirk - - -	532.33	340,691	270,108
Stirling - - -	1,863.53	1,193,939	946,585
Sutherland - - {	37.86	24,230	19,210
	442.78	283,579	224,670
Wigton - - -			
Total - - - {	29,510.97	18,698,894	14,967,406
	300.13	230,758	183,523
Total - - -	29,811.10	19,119,652	15,150,929

The Scots and Picts.] The early history of Scotland for a long period is exceedingly obscure ; and has been darkened rather than illustrated by the disquisitions of antiquarians. It may be remarked generally that the territory now known by the name of *Scotland*, was long possessed by two rival nations,—the Scots, called sometimes *Attacotti*, on the west,—and the Picts, sometimes called *Piks*, on the east. After many battles, Kenneth, king of the Scots, completely vanquished the Picts ; and, in 845, he united all Scotland under his government, thus becoming, in some measure, the founder of the kingdom. But for a long period after this event, Scottish history, though in some instances better authenticated, contains little that is interesting—if we except the frequent piratical incursions of the Danes—till we come to the reign of Malcolm III. who succeeded to the throne in 1056.

Malcolm III. to David I.] Malcolm, having avenged the death of his father on the murderer and usurper Macbeth, found himself involved in a war with William of Normandy, who had conquered the southern part of the island. Malcolm had protected his brother-in-law, Edgar Atheling, the lawful heir to the crown lately worn by Harold. Atheling was a weak prince ; but the protection afforded him by the Scottish monarch provoked the resentment of William, who invaded Scotland, and having vanquished Malcolm, compelled him to do homage, according to English annalists, for the whole of his kingdom, but, according to Scottish historians, only for those lands which he held within what was accounted the English territory.

The death of William afforded Malcolm a new opportunity of asserting the right of Atheling to the English crown ; and after various transactions, which are differently related by the Scottish and English historians, a negotiation was concluded, and Atheling restored to his estates in England, though not to the throne of that kingdom. William II. of England, who had succeeded his father, thinking the terms of the pacification too favourable, resolved to violate them. Malcolm was not unwilling to renew the war. He marched into England, and laid siege to the castle of Alnwick, where he was killed, in 1093, and leaving no sons of age, his throne was usurped, first by Donald Bane, and afterwards by Duncan, his own natural son. By the interposition of the English king, Edgar, the lawful son of Malcolm, was placed upon the Scottish throne. This prince, after a reign of no great length, and distinguished by no remarkable event, died in 1107, and was succeeded by Alexander, a prince who rendered himself odious to a part of his subjects by his severe administration of justice. After assisting Henry I. of England in a war against the Welsh, he died in 1124.

David I. to Bruce.] Having left behind him no issue, Alexander was succeeded by David his younger brother, who interested himself in the affairs of England, espousing the cause of Maud against Stephen. David died in 1153, and was succeeded by Malcolm IV.—a prince of a weak body and no less feeble mind—who distinguished himself only by his continence. His brother William succeeded to the crown in 1165. This prince, in the beginning of his reign, recovered from Henry II. of England the earldom of Northumberland, which had been relinquished by Malcolm ; but leading afterwards an army into England, and conducting himself with too little caution, he was made prisoner, and detained in captivity until, in order to regain his liberty, he consented to declare himself a vassal of England, and to do homage for his whole kingdom. Richard, however, who

succeeded Henry, remitted the oppressive terms, and declared Scotland to be an independent kingdom,—a measure to which he was induced, partly by the injustice of the transaction itself, partly in consideration of a payment of 10,000 marks, and partly by his wish to render the Scots his friends during his absence upon an expedition which he was about to undertake into Palestine. William continued a faithful ally of the English until his death in 1214. Alexander II. who succeeded his father, took the side of the English barons in their contentions with John, their feeble and imprudent monarch. His son, Alexander III., was proclaimed king in 1249, when he was only 10 years of age. He had been betrothed to a daughter of Henry III. of England; and when he proceeded to England to fulfil the contract, the English monarch thought it a fit opportunity of renewing his claim of vassalage over the whole Scottish kingdom; but the resolute reply of Alexander himself, and the evident discontent of his nobles, induced Henry to give up his absurd pretensions. Alexander by the prudence of his conduct secured the prosperity of his kingdom, and united to his dominions several of the neighbouring islands claimed by the Norwegians, particularly the islands of Orkney and Shetland. The reign of Alexander was not remarkable for any other important event. He was killed, in 1285, by his horse having fallen with him over a precipice while hunting at Kinghorn. The English throne was at this time filled by Edward I.,—a prince distinguished for his ambition and the successful energy of his conduct. He had long wished to establish his authority in Scotland, and the state of affairs in that country gave him a fit opportunity for executing his projects. Alexander, before his death, had given his daughter in marriage to the son of the king of Norway; and the Scots, probably foreseeing the intention of the English kings upon the independence of their country, had declared that the posterity of Margaret, daughter of Alexander, should be accounted the lawful heirs of the crown. Margaret died, leaving only an infant daughter, commonly called ‘the Maiden of Norway,’ who was immediately recognized as queen by the states. Edward endeavoured to procure her in marriage for his son, the prince of Wales, hoping in this manner to unite the sovereignty of the two kingdoms in his own family. But while negotiations were carrying on for this purpose, and the Scots were taking every precaution which their love of independence required, the young princess died in 1290.

Baliol, Bruce, and Wallace.] The line of Alexander's descendants being thus extinguished, it was necessary to have recourse to other branches of the royal family. Many claimants of the crown appeared, each supporting his pretensions with specious arguments; but two were allowed to have a right superior to all others. These competitors were John Baliol, and Robert Bruce, both descended from David I. David, earl of Huntingdon, was grandson of David the Scottish king; John Baliol was the grandson of his eldest daughter, Robert Bruce was the son of his second daughter. In this delicate case, the imperfect laws of succession then established could not decide. Each of the claimants seemed resolved to maintain his right by force; each had many partisans; and a civil war appeared to be unavoidable, when Edward of England offered his judgment in the decision of the affair. Eager to avert the horrors of a civil war, and unable likewise to resist the arms of so formidable a prince, the Scottish nobles assembled upon the frontiers, where Edward met them for the pretended purpose of making the important decision. He first, however, demanded that all the places of strength in the kingdom should be put into his hands,

that he might put in force his decision, and deliver them up to the successful candidate. This demand was complied with. But Edward, thus put in possession of the kingdom, and wishing to retain it, affected to consider Scotland as a fief of the English crown, and as such subjected to all the conditions of a feudal tenure. This superiority, all the learning and ingenuity of his court, aided by all the arts of plausible forgery, were employed to demonstrate; while an English army assembled on the frontiers, enforced the argument in a manner which could not be resisted. In this state of things some pretended to be convinced of the justice of Edward's claims; others laboured by cunning to evade the required concession; and others nourished in their breasts a secret resentment which they hoped that time might yet afford them the means of successfully avowing.

Edward, in the mean time, either convinced that Baliol's claim was superior, or imagining that he was of a more obsequious disposition than his rival, averred—and apparently upon the rules received in England with regard to succession in indivisible fees—that to him belonged the right of succession, and he was immediately dressed out in the pageantry of royalty. Lest he should forget, however, that he had a superior, he was summoned to London on the most frivolous pretences, where he was subjected to the most degrading insults, till, unable longer to endure the ignominy of his situation, he retired with indignation to his own country. Edward perhaps beheld, with little regret, a line of conduct in the Scottish king which might give him a plausible pretext for carrying his arms into that nation. But a war with France, in which he was then engaged, prevented him from immediately executing his designs. The Scots, sensible that they were unable without foreign aid to resist the arms of Edward, entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with France; and Baliol, having first formally renounced his allegiance to Edward, not waiting for the expected attack, invaded the English frontiers; but his soldiers, little trained to regular warfare, were unable to resist the disciplined forces of England. Baliol himself, having been defeated at Dunbar, was carried to London, and confined in the tower for two years; afterwards he was liberated, and, retiring to France, relinquished for ever the contest for regal power.

Adding now to all his other pretensions, the right of conquest, Edward affected to consider Scotland as entirely his own; he appointed deputies over the different districts of the country, and, having filled the garrisons with English soldiers, and compelled all ranks to swear fealty to him, returned to his capital. In this melancholy crisis of Scottish affairs, when the people, groaning under the yoke of foreign domination, and inflamed with the deepest animosity, were yet powerless for the want of men of talents and integrity to head them in their resistance, arose Sir William Wallace, who relumed the expiring embers of freedom, and, by his consummate wisdom and valour, laid the foundation of by far the most splendid era of the Scottish monarchy. Having slain an English officer who had insulted him, he was compelled for a while to conceal himself in the almost impenetrable recesses of his country, where others in similar circumstances, or allured by the hope of harassing the oppressors of their country, speedily joined him. Wallace and his associates engaged in small attempts at first; but when success had inspired additional confidence, enterprises of greater importance were undertaken. Ormsby, the English justiciary, saved himself only by flying into England. John de Warenne, earl of Surrey and Sussex, Edward's lieutenant, had left Scotland for

the recovery of his health ; but speedily levying 50,000 infantry, and 1000 horse, he hastened, in the absence of his royal master, who was then in France, to suppress the Scottish insurrection. Advancing towards Stirling, he found Wallace encamped with a force of 10,000 men on the opposite side of the Forth ; and imprudently attempting to pass it by a wooden bridge at Kildean, his forces were attacked in the confusion of the passage, and completely routed with the loss of 5000 men. The battle of Stirling was fought on the 13th of September, 1297, near the place now called Corntown. Wallace, who now received the title of regent or protector, carried his arms into England ; and having laid waste the northern counties, returned with a rich booty. Edward, informed of what had happened, concluded a hasty truce with France, hastened home, and with an army of above 80,000 men marched northwards, again to subjugate his Scottish vassals. Envy and jealousy had already deprived Wallace of the supreme command. Edward attacked the Scottish forces under Cumyn and Wallace near Falkirk. The victory was decisive ; and, once more, the English king saw Scotland in his power. His army, however, had no sooner marched southwards, than the Scots once more began to assert their independence. John de Segrave, who had been left governor, led his army northwards, in three divisions, to suppress the rising revolt. The first division found and attacked the Scottish army near Roslin, but was repulsed. This engagement, however, was scarcely terminated, when the second body of Englishmen made its appearance. The combat was fierce, many of the Scots were wounded, and not a few had fallen, but victory had again declared in their favour, when the third body of their enemies came in view, vigorous for the fight, and eager to avenge the death of their countrymen. The double victory already acquired, and the deep hatred of English tyranny, animated the exhausted soldiers. A third engagement commenced, and a third time the Scots were victorious in the same day. The English forces were entirely dispersed, and Scotland once more regained her independency. Edward now marched in person, with an army which the force of Scotland could not resist ; while his fleet, sailing along the coast, supplied him with provisions. In this way he advanced to the extremity of the kingdom, receiving, wherever he came, the submission of the people as well as of the nobles. By the treachery of one of his friends, Wallace, the champion of his country's rights, was betrayed into Edward's hands ; and carried to London, where he was soon after executed as a traitor.

Wallace had a more successful, though not a more brave successor. Robert de Bruce, grandson of that Bruce who had disputed in his own right Baliol's pretensions to the Scottish crown, formed the design of raising his countrymen from their slave-like condition, and placing himself upon the throne. Escaping from Edward—who was apprised of his design and who intended to have seized him—he arrived in Scotland ; and put to death Cumyn, who had treacherously informed the English monarch of the intended revolt. He then made himself master of the greater part of the fortified places in the kingdom ; and had almost entirely liberated the country from its oppressors, when he was suddenly attacked by the English forces, and being defeated was compelled to take shelter in the Western islands. Edward, while on his death-bed at Carlisle, enjoined his son and successor, Edward II., to prosecute the war with Scotland ; but the young king inherited not his father's abilities, and Bruce, having issued from his retreat, began to collect his forces, and even marched into

England, and laid waste several of the northern counties. Edward, at length roused from his lethargy, led into Scotland an army more powerful than had ever invaded that country. He came up to Bruce near Stirling; when the great and decisive battle of Bannockburn, fought on the 24th of June, 1314, firmly established Scottish independency, and secured Bruce in the possession of that throne which he had so bravely acquired.

David II.] On the death of Robert Bruce, in 1328, his son, David II. was proclaimed king. Baliol, the son of that Baliol, who, during the reign of Edward I. had disgraced himself by his pusillanimity, formed a party, however, for the purpose of supporting his pretensions to the crown. He was favoured by Edward III. a prince of no less illustrious abilities than his predecessor, Edward I. Many battles were fought, and Baliol and Edward were at first successful; but David ultimately succeeded in expelling the usurper from his kingdom. But the war between Scotland and England continued with increasing rancour, and David was made prisoner in the battle of Durham. After being detained in captivity eleven years, he was liberated for 100,000 marks, and returning to Scotland, died in 1371, leaving no issue.

Robert II.] David was succeeded by his nephew, Robert II. the first of the family of Stuart who sat on the throne of Scotland; and an act was framed securing the crown to him and his heirs. He concluded a treaty of mutual defence with France; and in consequence of an article of the treaty, recalled such of his subjects as served in the English army,—a measure which the English considered as a prelude to hostilities. War was therefore soon commenced, and the battle of Otterburn, on which the celebrated ballad of Chevy Chase is founded, was fought, but without any considerable advantage to either of the countries, and without producing any material change in their relative situations. Robert II. died in 1390, and was succeeded by his eldest son, John, who, upon his accession, assumed the name of Robert III.

Robert III., Albany, and James I.] Scotland for some time enjoyed peace with England, but was rent by the dissensions of its own powerful barons, and the feuds of hostile clans. The earl of March, affronted by the king, fled into England. The English refused to give up the earl, and a war immediately ensued. The southern counties of Scotland were ravaged by Percy; and Henry IV. having proposed to make an entire conquest of the country, had marched with a large army as far as Edinburgh, when a conspiracy in England rendered it necessary for him to retire. The latter part of the reign of Robert III. was disturbed by the ambition of the duke of Albany. That nobleman, regardless of justice in his measures, procured the death of the duke of Rothesay, the heir of the crown. Robert, unable to take vengeance on Albany, or even to protect the remaining branches of his family, designed to send his second son, James, into France, for the purpose of being educated in safety. But James was intercepted by the English, and detained a prisoner,—an event which so much affected his father, that he soon after died of grief. The regency now devolved on the duke of Albany, and the kingdom became the scene of much domestic confusion. The Scottish prince was detained in England nineteen years; but the excellent education bestowed on him, in some measure compensated for the injustice of his captivity. At length, he obtained his liberty; and, returning to his own country, endeavoured to correct those abuses which had arisen in his absence from the prevalence of the feudal system in its rudest form. The attempt was far from being

agreeable to his ferocious barons ; and the resumption of the crown-lands which had been alienated during his captivity, rendered him still more odious in their eyes. He was assassinated in 1437, while at supper in a convent in the neighbourhood of Perth.

James II.] His son and successor, being only seven years of age, the country was subjected to the miseries of a long and feeble regency. But, when at length he assumed the reigns of government into his own hands, James II. displayed a prudence and a fortitude which inspired hopes of a reign favourable to his country. These hopes were prematurely blasted by his being accidentally killed by the bursting of a cannon at the siege of Roxburgh.

James III.] The death of James II. which happened in 1460, once more opened a melancholy prospect to his kingdom. James III. was not quite seven years of age when he succeeded to the throne : like that of his father, therefore, the reign of this prince was subject to all the troubles of a minority, and the disorders of the kingdom did not terminate with the regency. The king, of a pusillanimous and irresolute temper, attached himself to persons of mean station, and for the most part of contemptible abilities. He hated his nobles, and was in his turn despised by them. Frequent quarrels and insurrections were terminated by an open rebellion, in which a party of nobles had the influence to prevail on the king's own son to place himself at their head. The forces of the rebels were numerous, but the king's troops were at least equal in number. They came to an engagement in the neighbourhood of Stirling, and James' cowardice ruined his cause. He fled at the first onset, and having been thrown from his horse, was carried into a miller's hut, where he was treacherously murdered by a person who, calling himself a priest, had been brought to confess him.

James IV.] The young prince was crowned in 1487, while yet a minor ; but the minority of James IV. seems to have been attended with few of those disorders which had distinguished those of his predecessors ; and, when he assumed the power into his own hands, he enjoyed a degree of quiet and prosperity almost unknown to the former monarchs of Scotland. He espoused the daughter of Henry VII. and thus laid the foundation of the future union of the two kingdoms. But such was the predilection of the Scots for a political connexion with France, that during the reign of Henry VIII. James was induced to embrace the French interest and to invade England. The undertaking proved fatal to himself, and hurtful to his kingdom. He invaded the northern counties ; and, engaging the English army at Flodden, fell there, with the greater part of the nobles by whom he was accompanied. The battle of Flodden was fought on the 8th September, 1513.

James V.] The death of James IV. once more subjected Scotland to the turbulence of a long minority. The nobles had, during the former minorities, been gradually acquiring a greater share of power than was consistent with the stability of government ; and each of the successive princes of the house of Stuart was employed in reducing that power. The minority of James V. was, if possible, more turbulent than that of any of his predecessors. The influence of the queen, his mother, indeed, prevented the commencement of hostilities with England ; but this only afforded the nobles a better opportunity of quarrelling with each other. James' interest ought, perhaps, to have induced him to form an alliance by marriage with England ; but his attachment to France prevailed, and he married the

daughter of the French king. This princess did not long survive her nuptials; and James again espoused a princess of the same nation,—the well-known Mary of Guise. James, in many cases, saw and pursued the true good of his country; and, in particular, his institution of the Court of Session entitled him to the gratitude of his subjects; but his continual efforts to depress the nobility embroiled him with that powerful body, and rendered his whole reign disastrous. Had he understood the political relations in which it was proper for Scotland to stand, he might have promoted the power of his kingdom, while he preserved its peace: for his alliance was courted by the kings of England and France, as well as by the emperor and the pope. But the king's attachment to France led him to commence hostilities against England; and the disgust of his nobles prevented him from carrying on the war either with honour or success. He survived the disgraceful issue of an expedition which he had sent against England only a few days, and expired in 1542, expressing the incurable anguish with which the defeat of his army at Solway had inspired him.

Mary.] Mary, no less celebrated for her misfortunes than for her beauty, was born but a few hours before the death of her father. Mary of Guise, the queen-mother, had the art to obtain the regency; but the soothing measures which for that purpose she was constrained to pursue with all ranks, gave an advantage to the reformers in religious matters, to which she was otherwise extremely averse. The minority of Mary was not without its troubles, chiefly arising from a continual struggle between those who favoured an alliance with England, and those who were attached to the interests of France; and the policy of Elizabeth, who now filled the English throne, made her rather foment than terminate this contest, since she thereby gave ample employment at home to a nation, which, had it been united in its councils, might have proved a troublesome neighbour. The young Scottish queen was early carried to France for the purpose of education; and, through the influence of her relations of the family of Guise, was married to the eldest son of the French king, who ascended the throne of France, under the name of Francis II. but lived not long to enjoy the power which he had inherited. Mary, upon her husband's death, returned to Scotland, and ascended the throne of her ancestors with the approbation and love of all ranks. For some time her felicity was unimpaired; but her subjects wished her to choose a husband,—and the ardour of youthful passion, rather than the dictates of policy or prudence, induced her to accept of the hand of Henry, lord Darnley, a man of comely appearance, but headstrong, foolish, and in some instances of a brutal disposition. Darnley's behaviour soon weakened the affections of his queen; and her love, formerly so violent, was in a short time converted into extreme hatred. Jealous of the influence of Rizzio over Mary, Darnley, aided by a few nobles, murdered the unfortunate Italian in his royal mistress's presence. This action increased and confirmed that hatred which had already taken possession of her mind. Meanwhile Bothwell, a nobleman of the most unbounded ambition, insinuated himself into Mary's favour; and the services which he rendered her, joined to her resentment against her husband, induced her to do that which it is impossible to justify. Soon after the birth of the only child which she ever had, and who was afterwards known by the name of James VI. Darnley was murdered. Bothwell is known to have been the perpetrator of the murder; and Mary herself, it has been pretty clearly demonstrated by impartial historians, in spite of the repeated vindications of her character by Catholic and Jacobite writers, was accessory to the

atrocious deed. Mary's crimes were indeed great, but her misfortunes equalled them. The atrocity of her conduct, united against her and Bothwell, whom she had married, almost all the nobles of Scotland. She was made a state-prisoner; but effecting her escape, raised a few troops. Her army was, however, defeated; and Mary being compelled to take shelter in England from the vengeance of her subjects, Elizabeth eagerly seized the opportunity of crushing one whom she accounted a dangerous rival. The unfortunate queen, after being confined as a prisoner for 19 years, was brought to trial before a tribunal to which she was not responsible, and condemned through the influence of Elizabeth, who had undertaken the office of her protectress, and who was related to her by blood, as well as bound in honour to rescue her from injury. She was beheaded at Fotheringay castle, on the 8th of February, 1587.

James VI.] The reign of Mary's successor, James VI. was more useful than splendid. After having for some time governed Scotland with considerable ability, he succeeded to the crown of England, in right of his descent from Henry VII. From the time that Britain was governed by one prince, till that period when the whole was declared to be one undivided kingdom, Scotland seems gradually to have fallen lower in the scale of dignity and power. Considered rather as an appendage of England, than as a part of Britain, it enjoyed none of those advantages which its alliance with that kingdom seemed at first to promise. It had indeed a parliament of its own; but that was a mere shadow of independence. Neglected by its nobles, who attached themselves to the court in England,—despised, and sometimes oppressed by its princes, who forgot that to it they owed their origin,—Scotland became every day less considerable, till the reign of Anne, when by the union Britain became one kingdom. This measure displeased not only the lower, but numbers also of the higher ranks. The removal of all patronage and show of royalty dissatisfied the latter, while the introduction of a strict system of general taxation was highly unpopular. To add to the general discontent, the grossest local oppression for a time prevailed, and every thing was placed under the direction and control of Englishmen. But the rapid progress in wealth and in power which the British dominions have since made, and in which Scotland has largely participated, fully confirms the sound policy of the measure.²

²The following is a list of the Scottish kings, according to Buchanan's chronology. It is proper to remark, however, that in the earlier periods its authenticity has been strongly, and with much show of reason, controverted. The chronology and names of the princes appear, indeed, to be in a great measure uncertain, till the reign of Kenneth II.

Began to reign A. C.		A. D.	
1. Fergus I.	330	18. Caratacus	84
2. Fretitharis	305	19. Corbred I.	84
3. Mainus	290	20. Dardanus	73
4. Dornadilla	261	21. Corbred II.	76
5. Nothatus	233	22. Luctacus	111
6. Reutherus	213	23. Mogaldus	114
7. Reuthra	187	24. Conarus	150
8. Therus	173	25. Ethodius I.	164
9. Josina	161	26. Satrael	197
10. Finnanus	137	27. Donald I.	201
11. Drustus	107	28. Etodius II.	219
12. Euenus I.	98	29. Athirco,	233
13. Gillus	79	30. Nathalecus	247
14. Euenus II.	77	31. Findochus	256
15. Ederus	60	32. Donald II.	269
16. Euenus III.	12	33. Donald III.	270
17. Metallanus	8	34. Crathalinthus	298

CHAP. II.—PHYSICAL FEATURES—COASTS—MOUNTAINS— RIVERS—LAKES—CANALS—ANTIQUITIES.

THE distinguishing characteristic of the surface of Scotland is variety. The country is generally mountainous to the extent of two-thirds; hence the thinness of the population compared with its extent. From the report made to the Agricultural board, not above one-eighth part of the superficies is cultivated land, the remainder being devoted to pasturage. Scotland is naturally divided into the two great divisions of Highlands and Lowlands. It may also be considered as divided into three parts: the northern, the central, and the southern, the boundaries of which are as strongly marked by nature as the former. The first, or northern division, is cut off from the middle or central division, by the chain of lakes occupying the middle of Glenmore nah' alabin, or 'the great glen of Caledonia,' stretching from Loch Linnhe to the Moray Firth, and now connected together by the Caledonian Canal. The second, or middle division, is separated from the southern by the Firths of Forth and Clyde, now joined by the Great Canal. In the northern division, nothing is presented to the eye but a vast congeries or mass of huge mountains, bordered, however, on the N.N.E. and E. coasts with vales and level tracts of considerable fertility. "In this district," says an intelligent traveller, "a wide extent of desert country lay before us, and exhibited a most august picture of forlorn nature; the prospect was altogether immense, but wild and desolate beyond conception. The mountains presented nothing to our view but heath and rock; between

55. Fincormachus	304	73. Gregory	886
56. Romachus	351	74. Donald VI.	904
57. Angulianus or Æneas	354	75. Constantine II.	915
58. Fethelmachus	357	76. Malcolm I.	935
59. Eugenius I.	360	77. Indulphus	964
60. Fergus II.	404	78. Duffus	973
61. Eugenius II.	420	79. Culenus	978
62. Dongardus	452	80. Kenneth III.	982
63. Constantine I.	457	81. Constantine IV.	994
64. Congallus I.	479	82. Grimus	996
65. Goranus, or Conranus	501	83. Malcolm II.	1006
66. Eugenius III.	535	84. Duncan I.	1034
67. Congallus II.	558	85. Macbeth	1043
68. Kinnatellus	574	86. Malcolm III. Canmore	1057
69. Aidanus	575	87. Donald VII.	1093
70. Kenneth I.	605	88. Duncan II. usurper	1094
71. Eugenius IV.	606	Donald VII. restored	1095
72. Farquhard, or Ferchard I.	626	89. Edgar	1098
73. Donald IV.	638	90. Alexander I.	1107
74. Farquhard II.	652	91. David I.	1124
75. Malduinus	670	92. Malcolm IV.	1153
76. Eugenius V.	690	93. William	1165
77. Eugenius VI.	694	94. Alexander II.	1214
78. Amberkelethus	705	95. Alexander III.	1249
79. Eugenius VII.	706	96. John Balliol	1292
80. Murdachus	723	97. Robert Bruce	1306
81. Etinus	739	98. David II.	1330
82. Eugenius VIII.	770	99. Ed. Balliol, usurper	1332
83. Fergus III.	778	100. Robert II. Stuart	1370
84. Solvathius	776	101. Robert III.	1360
85. Achalus	796	102. James I.	1423
86. Congallus II.	828	103. James II.	1437
87. Dongallus	833	104. James III.	1460
88. Alpinus	840	105. James IV.	1489
89. Kenneth II.	843	106. James V.	1514
90. Donald V.	863	107. Mary	1543
91. Constantine II.	868	108. James VI. of Scotland	1567
92. Ethus	881	First of England	1604

them formless lakes and pools, dark with the shades thrown from prodigious precipices, gave grandeur to the wilderness in its most gloomy forms." The middle division also contains many great ranges of mountains, particularly the Grampians, extending from the Atlantic to the German Ocean. This grand range forms, as in the former division, the boundary between the hilly and the flat country, which last occupies the northern and eastern coasts. In these two divisions, comprehending more than two-thirds of Scotland, the arable part bears but a small proportion to the mountainous regions whose ruggedness and sterility will for ever defy the utmost efforts of human industry. The country, on the eastern coast of the middle division, and in a great part of the southern, bears more resemblance to England; and the proportion of the cultivated to the uncultivated land is much greater. In the southern part we find every sort of rural variety. In some parts are seen "verdant plains, watered by copious streams, and covered with innumerable cattle. In others, the pleasing vicissitudes of gently rising hills and bending vales, fertile in corn, waving with wood, and interspersed with meadows, offer the most delightful landscapes of rural opulence and beauty. Some tracts abound with prospects of the most romantic kind,—lofty mountains, craggy rocks, deep narrow dells, and tumbling torrents; nor are there wanting, as a contrast to so many agreeable scenes, the gloomy pictures of bleak barren moors and wild uncultivated heaths." The Lothians, with the banks of the Clyde, exhibit a gently varied surface, well-watered; the districts called *carses* present the same arts of cultivation on a surface entirely level; while the north-western districts display scenes uncommonly picturesque, but too frequently totally incapable of rewarding the toil of the cultivators.

Coasts.] In describing the coasts of Scotland, we shall begin at the S. E. angle. From Berwick-upon-Tweed the shore bends to the N.W. until it is terminated by the Firth of Forth, which penetrates a considerable way inland, affording good anchorage and shelter throughout its whole extent. The promontory of Fife, jutting out into the sea, forms a division between the Firth of Forth and the estuary of the Tay. From the mouth of the Tay to Peterhead or Buchanness, the most easterly point of Scotland, the coast winds in a wavering direction to the N. E. It then runs in a northerly direction until terminated by a vast bay of a triangular form, the south side of which extends upwards of 80 miles inland, and is termed the Murray or Moray Firth. The northern side of this triangle is indented by the Firths of Cromarty and Dornoch, both safe stations,—the former being the *Portus salutis*, or 'safe haven,' of the ancient geographers. From the Firth of Dornoch, the coast winds to the N.E. till terminated by Duncansby-head, the most north-eastern point of Scotland, in $58^{\circ} 40'$. The northern coasts are generally bold and dangerous,—jutting out into formidable rocky headlands,—and divided from the Orkneys by a narrow and tempestuous sea, named the Pentland Firth. From Duncansby-head the coast bends in a N.W. direction to the promontory of Dunnet-head, the most northern point of Scotland, in $58^{\circ} 45'$; from which it proceeds in a S.W. direction to Thurso Bay, which runs some distance into the country. Here it again bends to the N.W. as far as Strathy-head, in $58^{\circ} 36'$, where it takes a S.W. direction, being indented by two arms of the sea, or bays, called Loch Tongue and Loch Erribole. Stretching again N.W. to Far-Out-Head, in $58^{\circ} 36'$, it then proceeds in a S.W. direction, where it is again indented by Durness Bay, an arm of the sea, and thence proceeds N. W. till terminated by the promontory of Cape Wrath, the most north-

westerly point of Scotland, in $56^{\circ} 34'$. The coast now turns to the south, and seems in its whole extent as if torn and shattered by the fury of the western waves, being every where indented by extensive arms of the sea, and sprinkled with innumerable islands, which appear as if torn from the mainland by some convulsion of nature. At the distance of 30 or 40 miles from the western coast, a range of islands, sometimes denominated the Long Islands, stretches from N. to S. above 100 miles. Near the coast is the isle of Skye, and to the S. is the isle of Mull, separated from it by a narrow sound. Still farther to the S. appear the great isles of Isla and Jura, with many other smaller isles. Near the sound of Mull is Loch Linnhe, a great navigable arm of the sea, extending N.E. as far as Fort William, and approaching within 20 miles of the extremity of the Moray Firth. To the S. of this great opening, the Argyleshire coast runs out into the long and narrow peninsula of Kintyre, the point of which is only 20 miles distant from the Irish coast. Between the Mull of Kintyre and the coast of Ayr, is the grand entrance to the Firth of Clyde, in which are the isles of Arran, Bute, and the smaller islands of the Cumbrays and Inchmarnock. This estuary divides at the isle of Bute into two great openings,—the first, Loch Fyne, penetrating 40 miles into the mainland of Argyleshire,—the second, the Firth of Clyde, extending easterly till within 30 miles of the Firth of Forth, with which it is connected by a navigable canal. From the Firth of Clyde, the coast proceeds in a southern direction till terminated by the Mull of Galloway, the S.W. point of Scotland. Thence the coast tends easterly along the Solway Firth. From the head of the Solway Firth a natural boundary with England is nearly completed by the river Liddel, the Cheviot hills, and the river Tweed.

Capes.] The most remarkable capes, proceeding northwards along the eastern, and southwards along the western coasts, are, St Abb's head, Fifeness, Peterhead, Kinnaird-head, Troup-head, Tarbat-Ness, Noss-head, Duncansby-head, Dunnet-head, Far-Out-Head, Cape Wrath, Codach point, Ardnamurchan, Mull of Kintyre, Corsil point, Mull of Galloway, and Barrow-head.

Mountains.] In the S.W. Galloway presents an extensive group of hills, seldom describing any uniform chain. One ridge runs from Glenluce bay, which extends towards Loch Ryan, north-easterly to Loch Doon. Other ridges run in various directions, following the course of the rivers till we arrive at the Nith. Of these, Criffel, a detached summit, has the greatest elevation. But the chief range in the S. of Scotland is that metalliferous ridge called *Leadhills*, from whence, in every direction, rivers descend to the sea. The small streams of Elvan and Glengonnar, having their sources in these hills, conveyed particles of gold to the Clyde; and Queen Elizabeth sent a German miner to gather gold dust in these streams. He wrote an account of his discoveries and labours, the manuscript of which is still in the Advocates' Library. The place where he washed the gold is still called Gold Scour. The search was again resumed by the earl of Hopeton, but soon discontinued, the expense being more than the profit. Gold dust is still found in very small quantities on the tops of the rocks, but the particles seldom exceed in size the point of a pin. Hartfell and Lowthers are the chief summits of this range. To the N. is the insulated mountain of Tinto; and Queensberry hill lies to the S.E. Loudon hill, in Ayrshire, is little remarkable; but returning to the eastern coast, we find the *Lammermoor ridge*, terminating in St Abb's head. The *Pentland hills*, to the S. of Edinburgh, are more picturesque than important. *North*

Berwick Law, and the romantic summits in the vicinity of Edinburgh, terminate the list of the southern hills. The *Leadhills* consist of argillaceous schistus, but the gray granite abounds in the Galloway mountains, and red granite occurs in Criffel fell.—On the N. of the Forth appear the *Ochil* and *Sidlaw hills*, running almost parallel to the Grampians, but of inferior elevation. To these must be added the *Kinnoul* and *Dunsinnan hills* and a small range in Angus. The *Grampians* may be considered as the grand frontier chain, forming the southern boundary of the highlands, extending from Loch Lomond to Stonehaven, in Kincardineshire, where they terminate. They are from 40 to 60 miles in breadth. *Ben-Nevis*, in Inverness-shire, is the monarch of Scottish mountains. This sublime mountain elevates its rugged front to the height of 4,370 feet above the level of the sea; and its summit and broken side are covered with ever-during snow. On its N.E. side it presents a prodigious precipice of 1,500 feet perpendicular. The prospect from its top is indescribably grand and magnificent. The whole of the great glen of Caledonia, from Fort George to the Sound of Mull, is presented to the eye,—comprehending the fresh-water lakes of Ness, Oich, and Lochy, and the whole course of the rivers Ness and Lochy, running in opposite directions, the one N.E. and the other S.W. The extent on the horizon of the sea is 80 miles, the eye stretching at once from the German to the Atlantic Ocean. This mountain is in great part composed of a fine brown porphyry; it also presents many specimens of green porphyry, intermixed with white quartz. The red granite of Ben-Nevis is said to be the finest in the world. In the northernmost division, lying beyond the great glen of Caledonia, the mountains are yet more numerous, but are very irregularly grouped, and less striking. The western shore, in particular, is crowded with hills, from the isle of Skye to Cape Wrath; while a branch spreading eastward to Ordhead forms what are termed by seamen the Paps of Caithness. The chief mountains of Ross-shire are Ben Chat, Benchaaker, Bon Golich, Ben Nore, Ben Fookarg, and Ben Wyves. In Sutherland and Caithness are Ben Ormod, Ben Clibeg, Ben Grin, Ben Hope, and Ben Lugal. To explain in the terms of geological science the constituent parts of the Scottish mountains would be superfluous here; we refer those of our readers who wish to be informed on this subject to Williams' Mineral Kingdom, Jamieson's Mineralogy of the Scottish Isles, and the Transactions of the Wernerian Society of Edinburgh.*

* The following is a list of the principal elevations in Scotland; chiefly taken from the survey of Generals Roy and Mudge, and the Philosophical Magazine.

	English feet.		English feet.
Alisa, (in the Firth of Clyde)	1105	Bencairn, Kirkcudbrightshire,	1801
Alva Hill, Stirlingshire,	1600	Benchoachan, Perthshire,	3600
Arthur's Seat, Edinburgh,	814	Benchoinsie, Perthshire,	2223
Auchinleck, Dumfries-shire,	1500	Benclloch, Perthshire,	2420
		Benderig, Perthshire,	3550
Ballagich, Renfrewshire,	1000	Bendochie, Aberdeenshire,	1480
Barry, Perthshire,	698	Beneagan, Banffshire,	1522
Bas Rock, (Firth of Forth),	400	Beneston, Argyleshire,	2208
Bein Ardianich, Perthshire,	3500	Benlawers, Perthshire,	4015
Bein Ima, or Cobler, Argyleshire,	2389	Benledi, Perthshire,	3030
Beisenturk, Argyleshire,	2170	Benlomond, Stirlingshire,	3176
Beingto, Perthshire,	3725	Benmore, Perthshire,	3680
Beinmore (in Mull), Argyleshire,	2980	Bennahua, Argyleshire,	2515
Ben Lui, or the Calf, Argyleshire,	3651	Bennevis, Inverness-shire,	4370
Bennabour, Aberdeenshire,	3040	Bennochie, Perthshire,	3000
Benschal, Perthshire,	1800	Benreislpol, Argyleshire,	2961
Benanambran, Argyleshire,	2720	Benvenue, Perthshire,	2900
Benavon, Aberdeenshire,	3080	Benvuirlich, Perthshire,	2300

RIVERS.] Scotland abounds in rivers, which, descending from high-land districts, are generally rapid. The principal rivers, and the extent of territory from which they derive their waters, are as follow:

	Square Miles.		Square Miles.
1. Tay	2396	6. Ness	850
2. Tweed	1870	7. Forth	840
3. Spey	1300	8. Lochy	530
4. Clyde	1200	9. Nith	504
5. North Dee	900	10. Findhorn	500

The Tay.] Of these, the Tay has, by far, the largest body of water;

	English feet.		English feet.
Bennais, Ross-shire,	3720	Dalmahoy Hill, Edinburghshire,	690
Beavrocky, Perthshire,	2756	Dickmount Hill, Lanarkshire,	700
Beauvois, Ross,	3780	Dollarbarn Hill, Peeblesshire,	8481
Belmont, Angusshire,	750	Douglas Cairn, Dumfriesshire,	1900
Beirmoes, Banffshire,	2747	Dundee Law, Angusshire,	525
Berwick Law (N.) Haddingtonshire,	940	Dunicolch, Argyleshire,	750
Bishill, Banffshire,	1045	Dunston, Roxburghshire,	1081
Bimay Craig, Linlithgowshire,	500	Dunrich, Roxburghshire,	9481
Birnam, Perthshire,	1580	Dunse Law, Berwickshire,	630
Blackhouse heights, Selkirkshire,	2370	Dunsinnan, Perthshire,	1024
Black Larg, Dumfriesshire,	2890	Danwar, Ayrshire,	1000
Blackside End, Ayrshire,	1560		
Blair Mount, Aberdeenshire,	1179	East Cairn, Peeblesshire, (<i>the largest of the Pentlands</i>),	1800
Braidlaw, Peebleshire,	2760	Eldon Hills, Roxburghshire,	1634
Branswar Hill, Dumfriesshire,	730	Errickston Braehood, Dumfriesshire,	1118
Bochaelive, Argyleshire,	2537	Etterick Pen, Selkirkshire,	2200
Back of Cabrach, Aberdeenshire,	2377		
Bockstane, Edinburgh,	680	Fare Hill, Aberdeenshire,	1783
Barthillien, Wigtonshire,	814	Farragon, Perthshire,	2694
Cairn-Fergus, Aberdeenshire,	2100	Fell of Mochrum, Wigtonshire,	1020
Cairgeran, Inverness-shire,	4060	Firmouth, Aberdeenshire,	2500
Cairnbarrah, Kirkcudbrightshire,	1100	Foreman, (<i>above the Dooveren</i>), Aberdeen-shire,	1000
Cairn-Mount, Kincardineshire,	1020		
Cairn-Kinow, Dumfriesshire,	2080	Glaishotren-Bein, Argyleshire,	1920
Cairnmonan, Aberdeenshire,	1020	Goatfell, (<i>in Arran</i>), Bute,	2640
Cairn-Naple, Linlithgowshire,	1498	Graitney Hill, Dumfriesshire,	252
Cairn-Oor, Perthshire,	2690	Gumacleugh, Peeblesshire,	2200
Cairnpat, Wigtonshire,	800		
Cairnsair, upon Deugh, Gallowayshire,	2297	Hangingshaw Law, Selkirkshire,	1780
Cairnsuir, of Fleet, Do.	2329	Hartfell, (<i>above Moffat 2762</i>), Dumfriesshire,	3300
Cairtable, Ayrshire,	1650	Hall's Cleugh, Peeblesshire,	2100
Cairtoul, Aberdeenshire,	4220		
Calton Hill, Edinburghshire,	360	Kell's Range, Gallowayshire,	2680
Calvar, Aberdeenshire,	1200	Kelly Law, Fifeshire,	816
Campsie Fells, Stirlingshire,	1500	Kerloch, Kincardineshire,	1800
Cardos, Peeblesshire, (<i>above Tweed 1400</i>),	9 000	King's Seat, Perthshire,	1196
Carlston, Ayrshire,	1354	Kinnoul, (<i>from the Tay</i>), Perthshire,	638
Carnethy, or Logan house Hill, Edinburgh,	1700	Kispuvie, Perthshire,	1151
Carter Fell, Roxburghshire,	1602	Kirkyeton, Edinburghshire,	1700
Castielaw, Edinburghshire,	1300	Klochnabane, Kincardineshire,	2370
Cathaw, Forfarshire,	2264	Knock, Banffshire,	2500
Cheviot, Roxburghshire,	2080	Knock-dolliaff, Ayrshire,	1950
Cockburnlaw, Berwickshire,	900	Knock-Doltin, Do.	930
Cocklerue, Linlithgowshire,	500	Knock-Dow, Do.	1554
Cowron, Aberdeenshire,	2000	Knock-Nunnan, Do.	1540
Corstorphine Hills, Edinburghshire,	470	Knock of Luce, Wigtonshire,	1014
Corrybuckle, Banffshire,	2558		
Craig-Kalton Hill, Edinburghshire,	1450	Lanark, (<i>town of</i>) Lanarkshire,	656
Craig-Lochart, Do.	540	Langholm Hill, Dumfriesshire,	1904
Craig-Owl, Angusshire,	1100	Larg, Wigtonshire,	1758
Craig-Phatic, Inverness-shire (<i>above the Ness</i>),	1150	Largo Law, Fifeshire,	1010
Craich-Bein, Argyleshire,	2430	Lead Hills, (<i>Village</i>), Lanarkshire,	1564
Crock-Moy, Do.	2036	Leven Seat, (<i>from the Clyde</i>), Lanarkshire,	1900
Cruchan Ben, Argyleshire, 1st summit,	3980	Lochtoun Hill, Perthshire,	1172
Do. 2nd Do.	3390	Lomond (W.J. Fifeshire	1721
Cruch-Loma, Argyleshire,	3000		
Culter Fell, Lanarkshire,	2300		

although, for length of course, it yields to the Spey. The Tay rises in Braidalbin, on the borders of Lorn, in Argyleshire. At its source, it bears the name of the *Fillan*, not receiving the name of Tay till it issues from the lake of that name. About 10 miles from its source it diffuses itself into Loch Dochart. Issuing thence, it loses the name of Fillan, and receiving that of *Dochart*, gives the name of Glendochart to the vale through which it runs. At the eastern extremity of this vale, besides other streams, it receives the Lochay from the N. W.; and shortly after the united streams are lost in Loch Tay. Two miles after emerging from this loch, it receives the Lyon. At Logierait, it is joined by the confluent stream of the Garry and Tummel, which almost equal it in size. Turning its course to the S. and receiving the waters of the Bran, near Dunkeld, it advances to Perth, augmented by several tributary streams, such as the Isla, the Shochie, and the Almond. A little below Perth, it turns to the S. and being joined by the Erne, washes the Carse of Gowrie, and falls into the sea, 8 miles below the town of Dundee, at which place it is 2 miles broad. It is navigable as far as Newburg, in Fife, for vessels of 500 tons, and vessels of considerable size can go up as far as Perth. There is a very extensive salmon-fishery on this river.

The Forth.] The Forth rises on the north side of Benlomond, and running in an easterly direction almost the whole breadth of the kingdom, forms that firth or arm of the German Ocean to which it gives its name. It forms four expansions, or small lakes, before it descends into the low country. From its source to its mouth, its course is remarkably serpentine. At eight miles above Stirling, it is joined by the united streams of the Teith, Allan, and Ardoch; and entering the Carse of Stirling and Falkirk, it pursues its course in beautiful meanders. These windings form a great many beautiful peninsulas. Some idea may be formed of the serpentine course of this delightful stream, when it is considered that the

	English feet.		English feet.
Lomond (E. Fife)shire,	1406	Salisbury Craigs, Edinburghshire,	550
Lowthers, or Lauders, Lanarkshire,	3150	Scarry Hills, Caithness-shire,	1876
Maedul, Aberdeenshire,	4362	Scarsough, Inverness-shire,	3414
Meagle, Peeblesshire,	1480	Scawd Law, (from the Tweed,) Peeblesshire,	1620
Mealfourvie, Inverness-shire,	3080	Schiehallion, Perthshire,	3564
Megg's Hills, Roxburghshire,	1480	Scrape, Peeblesshire,	2509
Millenwood Fell, Roxburghshire,	2000	Scriffield or Criffel, Kircudbrightshire,	2044
Minchmoor, Peeblesshire,	2000	Sidlaw, Angusshire,	1406
Minto Craigs, Roxburghshire,	649	Skurr Choinich, Argyllshire,	2364
Minto Hills, Do.	858	Skurr Dhonull, Do.	2730
Misty Law, Renfrewshire,	1240	Sleave gulls, Do.	2228
Moffat, (Village),	510	Soutra Hill, Berwickshire,	1716
Mormond, Aberdeenshire,	810	Spittle, Hill, Edinburghshire,	1390
Morven, Do.	3100	St Kilda, Hebrides,	1800
Mount Battock, Kincardineshire,	3465	Tennis Hill, Dumfriesshire,	1346
Mount Blair, Perthshire,	1300	Three Brethren, Selkirkshire,	1978
Mount Isla, Banffshire,	1800	Tinto (from the Clyde 1740) Lanarkshire,	2398
Muirfoot Hills, Edinburghshire,	1850	Torieum, Perthshire,	1409
Noath, Banffshire,	1830	Tudhope Fell, Roxburghshire,	1830
Ord of Caithness, Caithness-shire,	1250	Tweedsmuir Church,	1800
Pap of Caithness, Caithness-shire,	1029	Walston Mount, Lanarkshire,	1550
Paps of Jura, Argyllshire,	2350 and 2476	Wanlockhead Village,	1.80
Pent Law, Selkirkshire,	1557	Wardlaw, Selkirkshire,	1900
Queensberry Hill, Dumfriesshire,	2250	Wardlaw, in Caerlaverock, Dumfriesshire,	826
Quothquanlaw, (from the Clyde) Lanarkshire,	600	Westraw Law, Lanarkshire,	1000
Rona, (in Shetland), Orkneys,	3944	Whitecombe, Peeblesshire,	2935
Ruberslaw, Roxburghshire,	1419	Windiestraw Law, Selkirkshire,	2245
		Wiuhead Fell, Roxburghshire,	2000
		Wisp, Do.	1835

distance from Stirling to Alloa, by land, is only 6 miles, while by water, it is no less than 24. A little below Alloa the Forth expands into a noble bay, 20 miles in length, but of unequal breadth. The river is navigable for vessels of 80 tons as far as Stirling.

The Clyde.] The Clyde is usually described as taking its rise from Clydeslaw, in the parish of Crawford, a hill belonging to that high range which separates Lanarkshire from Annandale; but, with greater propriety, it may be said to have its source 6 miles farther south; the Dair Water, which joins it at Elwanfoot, being in fact the parent-stream, having a remoter source, and being a larger body of water. It runs through Crawford-moor, leaving the Lead-hills to the left, and winding around the lofty hill of Tinto near Symington, it pursues a northerly course till about 2 miles S. of Carnwath, when it assumes a direction towards the W., and, after a course of 60 English miles in a direct line, it falls into the Firth to which it gives name, opposite the Isle of Bute. In its course through Clydesdale it waters the most fertile vale in Scotland, and forms several romantic falls and cascades. It has three remarkable falls near Lanark. The upper fall which is $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles above Lanark, is called *Bonnyton*. There the river precipitates itself over a rock of 27 feet perpendicular height. Above this fall it appears one broad, expanded, and placid sheet of water; but immediately below, its channel becomes contracted, and the river boils and foams and thunders among rocks and precipices till it arrives at the second fall, called *Corra-linn*. Here it does not, as at the Bonnyton-linn, rush over at one leap, but makes three different though almost imperceptible precipitate leaps of 84 feet. Two miles below, is the third fall, usually called *Stonebyre's linn*, about 80 feet in height. It is equally romantic with the others, and here, as at Corra, the river takes three distinct precipitate leaps. In its course, the Clyde receives the Elwan, the Glengonnar, the Mouse, the Douglas, the Nethen, the Aven, the South and North Calder, the Kelvin, the Cart, and the Leven. It is now navigable to Glasgow, in consequence of the spirited improvements which have been made on the bed of the river, for vessels of 400 tons burden. At Bowling Bay, 12 miles below Glasgow, it is joined by the Great Canal from the Forth.

The Tweed.] The Tweed, though not the largest, is the most pleasant pastoral stream in Scotland. It has its source in Tweeds-moor, near the point where the counties of Peebles, Dumfries, and Lanark join, and not far from where the Clyde and Annan take their rise. It runs nearly N. E. till it reaches Peebles: when turning E. it is augmented by the Ettrick near Selkirk, the Gala near Galashiels, the Leader near Melrose, and the Teviot at Kelso, streams celebrated in Scottish song. A few miles below this town, it leaves Roxburghshire, and forms, for many miles, the boundary between England and Scotland, until it falls into the German Ocean, at Berwick-upon-Tweed. It receives no stream of consequence during this part of its course, except the Whittadder, which joins it 5 or 6 miles above its mouth. The Tweed abounds in trout, and its salmon-fishings are particularly valuable. It is a rapid transparent river, and runs 60 miles in a straight line.

The Annan.] The Annan rises a very little to the S. of the source of the Tweed, near Errickston Brae Head; it runs S. through Annandale, and discharges its waters into the Solway Firth. It receives, in its progress, the Moffat, Evan, Milk, and Dryfe waters.

The Nith.] The Nith originates in the parish of New Cumnock, Ayrshire, and running in a winding course S. E. receives the Seaur at

Kier, and the Carron and Cample at Durisdeer, and falls into the Solway Firth, below the town of Dumfries. It abounds with salmon and trout. Its course, in a direct line, is 50 miles; but, including its windings, it cannot be less than 100.

The Spey.] Next to the Tay, the Spey is undoubtedly the largest of the Scottish streams. It is a grand and impetuous river, rising in Badenoch, Inverness-shire, and, a few miles from its source, forming an expansion called Loch Spey. Resuming its course, it runs rapidly towards the E., but at the village of Rothes, turns to the N. and discharges itself into the Moray Firth, at Garmouth. Its whole course, in a direct line, is 90 miles; but including its windings, may be estimated at 120. It gives name to the Highland district of *Strathspey*, so famous for its very striking and popular species of Scottish music. In the last three miles of its course, its descent is not less than 60 feet.

The Dee.] The Dee rises on the north side of the mountain Cairntoul, from the wells of Dee, in the western border of Aberdeenshire, which are elevated 4000 feet above the level of the sea; and running rapidly through a wild and wooded country, in a north-easterly direction, falls into the sea below New Aberdeen. The produce of the salmon-fishing on this river is valued at £8,000 annually.

The Don.] The Don, a rapid stream rising in the hills of Mar, runs a course almost parallel to the Dee, and falls into the sea at Old Aberdeen, 2 miles to the N. of the mouth of the Dee. It also abounds in salmon. A small fishing, of not more than 3 or 400 yards along its banks, has been rented at £2000 per annum. The soil on its banks is remarkably fertile. It has a course of 61 miles.

Smaller Rivers.] A little to the N. of the Don, is the river *Ythan*, formerly famous for the pearl-fishery.—The *Deveron*, after a circuitous N. E. course of 50 miles, falls into the sea at Banff.—The name *Esk*—which, in Gaelic, signifies ‘a river’—is applied to several streams in Scotland, viz.: the North Esk and South Esk, rising in the Benchninn mountains in Angusshire; the North Esk and South Esk, in Mid-Lothian; and the Esk, in Dumfriesshire. The streams which enter the sea on the northern and western coast are mostly mountain-torrents; and, consequently, seldom navigable.—Upon the N. E. the firths of Moray and Dornoch receive many small streams, but none of any magnitude.—The *Lossie* is only remarkable for washing the venerable remains of Elgin; but the *Findhorn*, which enters the sea 4 miles below Forres, is a very considerable stream. Rising in Inverness-shire, it runs from S. W. to N. E. a course of 50 miles in a direct line. It flows through a highly mountainous country, and has, consequently, a rapid course.—The rivers in Galloway and Ayr are of inconsiderable magnitude, and owe their chief celebrity to the muse of Burns.

LAKES.—*Lochlomond.*] Of the numerous and extensive lakes which give variety and beauty to the Scottish landscape, the first place is due to Lochlomond in Dumbartonshire. This matchless sheet of water is 30 miles in length, and 9 in breadth. It is studded with islands, many of them of considerable size and finely wooded, and its shores are every where beautiful and picturesque in a surpassing degree. The traveller who has beheld the enchanting beauties of the Italian Como and the Swedish Moelar, still turns with rapture to the Scottish Lomond. On the S. E. this loch receives the water of Endrick; and on the W. the Uglas, the Luss, the Fruin, and Falloch, with other streams of minor impor-

tance. It discharges its superfluous waters by the Leven, which falls into the Clyde at Dumbarton. It abounds with fine trout, and a few salmon are caught at its southern extremity. Its waters appear to be gaining on the land, probably from the sand carried into it by the mountain-torrents. Its depth is from 20 to 100 fathoms. During the great earthquake which destroyed Lisbon, in 1755, the waters of this lake were violently agitated: rapidly rising several feet and as rapidly falling for several hours.

Loch Awe.] Loch Awe, in Argyleshire, is a beautiful expanse of water, 30 miles in length, and from 1 to 2 in breadth. Northwards from this lake, rises the lofty Ben Cruachan, from which descends the stream which forms this expanse of water. It abounds in salmon, trout, and eel; and discharges itself into Loch Etive, an arm of the sea, at a place called Bun Awe, where a salmon-fishery is established. It has several small islands. Loch Eck in this county is a small but beautiful piece of water.

Loch Katrine.] To the N.E. of Benlomond is an assemblage of lakes, formed by the Forth and its tributary streams. Of these the most remarkable is Loch Catherine, or Katrine, the *Loch-Ceid-Iurrin* of the natives, signifying 'the lake of the rocky region of cold and gloom.' It is a beautiful expanse of water, above 10 miles in length, and one and a half in breadth, formed by the Teith and a number of streamlets descending from the adjacent hills. It is confined on all sides by lofty mountains, whose rugged cliffs, frowning over the thickets of natural wood with which it is every where beautifully skirted, give to the scene an air of sublime grandeur; a number of sequestered hamlets on its southern side, seen through the thick foliage of surrounding trees, add a romantic interest to the landscape.

Loch Achray.] The Teith, a little farther on, likewise forms Loch Achray, one of the sweetest little lakes in Scotland. Bounded on the north by an uninterrupted wood, which contrasts finely with its bare and heathy southern bank, it seems to rest, calm and smooth, amid the surrounding hills; while numerous hamlets, scattered beneath the shelter of green knolls and wooded steepes, each with its little spot of cultivation, convey the most pleasing ideas of quiet contentment, honest industry, and frugal retirement.

Loch Vennachar.] Of more ample size, and with still more romantic accompaniments, farther down the river, expands Loch Vennachar, or Venuchar, 'the lake of the steep of Benvenue.' The length of this lake is about 5 miles, and the breadth generally one and a half. Its margin swells gently on the right into distant eminences; on the left, a bold promontory, well-wooded, and rising into a rugged precipice, narrows its outline, and sheds over its darkened expanse a gloomy and sublime grandeur.

Lochs Monteith, Ard, and Con.] A little to the S. E. of Loch Vennachar, lies lake Monteith, about 5 miles in circumference, having two beautiful islands, on one of which formerly stood the abbey of Inchmahome; and to the W. of lake Monteith lie the lakes Ard and Con, the latter $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, the former 3 miles in length and one in breadth, and both distinguished by features of singular beauty, they are formed by a northerly branch of the Forth.

Lochs Doine, Voil, and Lubnaig.] To the N. of Loch Catharine, on a branch of the Teith, lie Loch Doine, Loch Voil, and Loch Lubnaig, the latter is 5 miles in length, and about three quarters of a mile broad; and all of them are marked by those characters of romantic beauty or terrific grandeur which so peculiarly distinguish this part of the country.

Loch Erne.] A little more to the N. in the same county of Perth, overshadowed by the huge Ben Vorlich, lies Loch Erne, 8 miles long, and one and a half broad. It contains some islands evidently artificial, on one of which are the remains of an old castle. Its banks are finely wooded with natural oak; and from its E. end, a few miles above Comrie, issues the Water of Erne, which after many delightful windings through the beautiful vale of Erne falls into the Tay a little below Elcho castle.

Loch Dochart.] To the W. N. W. of Erne, and formed by the Fillan—which rising on the borders of Argyleshire holds a circuitous course of about 9 miles through a valley called Strathfillan—lies Loch Dochart,—a small but very romantic piece of water, having a floating island which moves before the wind and may be pushed about by poles. The lake gives name to the stream, which issuing from it runs for about 8 miles through Glen Dochart, and, joining the Lochay at Killin, falls into Loch Tay.

Loch Tay.] Loch Tay is one of the most beautiful pieces of fresh water in Europe. It is 15 miles in length; from one to two miles in breadth; and from 15 to 100 fathoms in depth. The banks on both sides are fertile, populous, and finely diversified by the windings of the coasts and the various appearances of the mountains. The waters of Loch Tay, as well as of several other lakes in different parts of Scotland, are sometimes agitated in a manner for which it is not easy to assign a satisfactory reason.

Lochs Rannoch and Ericht.] Northwards from Loch Tay is the Rannoch, a lake which receives at its W. end the Gaunir, and at its E. end discharges itself by the Tummel, a branch of the Tay. The Rannoch is 12 miles in length; its breadth is from 1 to 2 miles.—From the *Ericht*, a lake still farther to the north, issues a river of the same name, which joins the Tummel. This lake is 2½ miles in length; but its breadth is scarcely one mile.

Lakes of Inverness-shire.] Inverness has many lakes.—The *Luggan*, or *Laggan*, is in length 15 miles; in breadth 1½; and from 60 to 135 fathoms deep. It has upon its southern bank an extensive wood, supposed to be part of the Caledonian forest. It receives the Pattack, a small stream, and discharges itself, by the Spian, into Loch Lochy, situated to the west.—The *Lochy*, and lake *Ness*, which lies to the N. E. of it, have lately acquired celebrity by constituting part of the line along which the Caledonian canal is conducted. *Lochy* is about 14 miles in length; and in breadth from one to two miles. It receives the Archaig, and discharges itself into Loch Linnha, a branch of the western ocean, by the river Lochy. Loch *Ness* is one of the largest lakes in Scotland, its length being 22 miles, and its breadth from 1 mile to 2½. It is every where very deep,—a circumstance which prevents it from freezing in winter. The waters of the Ness are liable to those agitations which have been mentioned in describing Loch Tay: like those of Loch Lomond, its waters were much agitated during the earthquake which destroyed Lisbon. The Oich and the Foyers are the most remarkable streams which this lake receives. It discharges itself into the Moray Firth, by the river Ness. *Shiel* is a lake in Inverness-shire, 10 miles long, and 2 broad. It has an island called Finnan, on which are the ruins of a church.—*Morrer*, about 10 miles in length, and 1 in breadth, discharges itself into the Atlantic.—*Archaig*, about 16 miles long and 1½ broad, discharges itself by its east end into the lake Lochy.

Ross-shire Lakes.] The *Glass*, a lake in Ross shire, 4 miles in length,

and 1 in breadth, gives rise to a river of the same name.—*Maddy*, to the north of it, is a lake of nearly the same size.—*Mair*, another lake in Ross-shire, is in length 16 miles, and in breadth from 1 to 2 miles. It contains 24 islands, in one of which are the remains of what is supposed to have been a druidical temple.—*Fannich*, in the same county, is 9 miles long and about $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad.

Lakes of Sutherland.] *Shin*, in Sutherland, is in length 20 miles, and, where broadest, about 2 miles.—In the same county, the *Naver*, or *Navern*, is 6 miles long, and 3 miles broad.—The *Loil*, a little to the N. W. is of somewhat inferior size. Both these lakes discharge themselves into the bay of Far, upon the northern coast of Scotland.

Lochs Leven and Doon.] The eastern and southern counties have few lakes. *Loch Leven*, situated partly in Fifeshire, partly in Kinross-shire, is 12 miles in circumference; and has several islands, in one of which Mary queen of Scots was confined by her nobles, after her marriage with Bothwell. An attempt is now making to gain some ground from the bed of this loch, by draining off ten feet of its present level.—The *Doon*, in Ayrshire, is 7 miles in length. It flows into the Atlantic by a river of the same name. The banks, both of the lake and river, are uncommonly picturesque; but they have received from Burns a celebrity which otherwise they certainly would not have attained. There are, besides the above, many other lakes, in various places of Scotland, which our limits forbid us to describe.

The following table exhibits the superficial extent of the most celebrated Scottish lakes:

Square Miles of Surface.		Square Miles of Surface.	
1. Loch Lomond, Dumbarton and Stirling	45	6. Loch Tay, Perth	20
2. Loch Awe, Argyle	30	7. Loch Arkieg, Inverness	18
3. Loch Ness, Inverness	30	8. Loch Shiel, Inverness	16
4. Loch Shin, Sutherland	25	9. Loch Luchy, Inverness	15
5. Loch Mair, Ross	21	10. Loch Laggan, Inverness	12

Natural Curiosities.] Scotland has many caverns of considerable extent; but none of them are so remarkable as to require a particular description. The *Trosachs*, in the neighbourhood of Callander, have every appearance of having once formed an immense mountain which has been torn in pieces by some tremendous convulsion, and the huge fragments, rocks, and hills scattered about in the wildest confusion. The rugged pathways among these fragments, are often overshadowed by rocks of stupendous height which seem ready every moment to close over the head of the traveller.—*Carlisle Craigs*, near Lanark, is a wild chasm which has the appearance of having been rent asunder so as to form a bed at the depth of 400 feet for the Mouse water, which thus finds a sublime but easy entrance into the Clyde.—The cascade of *Glamma*, in Glen Elchaig; the cataract caused by a ridge of rocks in Loch Etive; the fall of *Foyers*, of 200 feet, in Inverness-shire; the cave of *Smo* on the east of Durness, and of *Frasgill* near Tong; the *Buller of Buchan*, a singularly rocky coast near Aberdeen; the Bass rock in the mouth of the Forth; and *Ailsa Craig*, at the mouth of the Clyde, are remarkable natural objects in this country. Curious basaltic columns are seen in many places: as at Arthur's Seat near Edinburgh, and in the hills of Campsie.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The advantages of navigable canals in the internal communication of a country are so great and obvious, that they are

generally to be found wherever commerce has become extensive. The most important of the canals of Scotland is that called the *Great Canal*, by which the Forth and Clyde are connected. This canal was projected so early as the reign of Charles II. and on a plan so extensive as to permit the passage of transports and small ships of war,—an undertaking which would have honoured the most prosperous reign, and far beyond the scanty resources of Charles. When the Union had given new vigour to Scottish commerce, the scheme was revived, and a survey for that purpose was made in 1722; but probably on account of the expense of the undertaking, it was again abandoned. It was again surveyed, and an estimate made of the probable expense on a small scale, by Lord Napier in 1761; and again in 1764 under the patronage of the trustees for fisheries. The merchants of Glasgow were eager to procure the execution of the plan; and in 1768 a sum was raised by subscription for making a canal 4 feet deep and 24 feet wide. When the bill, authorizing its formation, had almost received the sanction of parliament, it occurred to those concerned in it that the plan was too diminutive, and a new subscription was commenced for the purpose of forming one 7 feet deep, of which the estimated expense was £150,000. The sanction of the legislature was soon obtained for the undertaking; and in 1768 it was commenced under the inspection of the well-known Smeaton. The obstacles to be overcome were numerous, and the expense so much greater than the estimated sum, that when the canal was conducted from the mouth of the Carron, where it has its outlet into the Forth, to Stockingfield, about three miles from Glasgow, not only the original subscription was exhausted, but a considerable loan which had been subsequently obtained. It reached Stockingfield in 1775, and at this place its progress for some time was interrupted. The merchants of Glasgow, by a collateral branch, brought it within a mile of the city. In 1784 the sum of £50,000 was granted from the annexed forfeited estates; the undertaking was resumed with vigour, and on the 28th of July, 1790, the navigation between the Forth and Clyde was opened. In the execution of this great work many difficulties were to be overcome. To raise it to the summit-level from the Forth, 20 locks were necessary, 10 of which are in the fourth mile; and to carry it down to Clyde from Stockingfield—a distance of only 7 miles—required no less than 19 locks. Every one of these locks is seventy-five feet long, and twenty wide. The general width of the canal at the surface is 56 feet, and its general depth 8 feet. It is crossed by 18 drawbridges, and is carried over roads, streams, &c. by 15 considerable aqueducts. That which carries it over the Kelvin is a stupendous piece of masonry, 429 feet in length, 57 in breadth, and elevated above the surface of the Kelvin 65 feet. The number of arches is four, the width of each 50 feet, and the height 37. That which carries it over the Luggie at Kirkintilloch, is also a very fine piece of masonry, consisting of one arch 90 feet in span. In one place it was necessary to carry it through a morass, to the extent of two miles, where it was with extreme difficulty a bed could be formed for the water. In some places it is artificially banked to the height of 20 feet, and in other places the bed required to be cut to a considerable depth. To supply it with water after it was dug, two reservoirs, one covering 70 acres to the depth of 24 feet, and another covering 50 acres to the depth of 22 feet, are in constant reserve for that purpose. The expense of the whole was upwards of £200,000.

At a short distance from lock No. 16, upon the Great Canal, commences the *Union Canal*, which terminates at Port Hopeton, near Edinburgh.

This canal is upon a much smaller scale than the Great Canal, but it has three fine aqueducts by which it is carried over the Avon, the Almond, and the Leith. That over the Avon is of unrivalled magnificence. It consists of 12 arches; and is nearly 900 feet in length, and 85 feet in height. This canal passes through the hill of Falkirk by a tunnel upwards of half a mile in length.

The *Monkland Canal*, formed for the purpose of bringing coal and limestone from Monkland to the city of Glasgow, joins the Great Canal at Port-Dundas. This canal is about four feet deep, and its breadth proportional.

The *Crinan Canal*, intersecting the peninsula of Kintyre, is 9 miles in length. It is crossed by 6 drawbridges, and has 15 locks. It admits vessels of 200 tons burden.

The *Ardrossan Canal*, intended to join Ardrossan with Glasgow, a distance of 35 miles, has as yet been carried only to Johnston, a distance of 11 miles. It carries vessels of 50 tons burden.

The *Caledonian Canal*, running from Inverness to Fort William, a distance of 59 miles, joins the Atlantic and the Moray Firth. It intersects the great glen of Caledonia, and is carried through Loch Ness, Loch Oich, and Loch Lochy, which occupy 37 miles, leaving only 22 miles to be artificially formed. This canal is 100 feet wide at the top, 50 at bottom, and 20 feet deep, and of course will admit 32 gun frigates. There is a rise of 94 feet on the east, which is overcome by 13 locks; and a fall of 90 feet on the west, which is overcome by 12 locks. Eight of these sit altogether about 60 feet perpendicular, at Banavie, and are aptly termed *Neptune's staircase*. They present a prodigious mass of masonry, and cost upwards of £50,000. This canal has been open for some time; but the advantages yet realized have not answered expectation. The expense has been £977,524, not reckoning interest of money, and the present receipts do not pay the expenses of keeping up this important canal.

ANTIQUITIES.] Scotland has many vestiges of the Romans: of these none are more remarkable than the fortified line between Forth and Clyde, called by the different names of *Agricola's wall*, *Antoninus' wall*, and *Graham's dyke*. The accounts of the commencement and termination of this rampart, at its east and west ends, are different: some making it to commence at Caer-ridden on the Forth, and to terminate on the Clyde at West Kilpatrick,—others making it commence at Kinneil, and terminate at Dunglass; but the difference in length, in these cases, is very inconsiderable: not amounting to more than a mile. The whole length is 40 Roman or 27 British miles. The rampart consisted of a ditch, of which the dimensions are not now well-known, though it is presumed to have been 12 feet wide. It is supposed that the foundation of this rampart was formed of stone, and that it was, at least in places much exposed to an attack, faced with stone. Upon the wall, at different distances, forts were erected. At less considerable distances, turrets were reared for the accommodation of small bodies of troops employed in the defence of the rampart. Of the larger forts, 18 are known to have existed, at the distance of about two miles from each other; of the inferior turrets, the number and intermediate distances are unknown. Along the south side of the rampart, a military way was formed for the accommodation of troops passing from one part of it to another. Of this road the vestiges have for the most part disappeared; though in a few places it is still visible.

Roman highways are visible in many places, to the south of the wall of

Antoninus; and even to the north of that wall, they have been traced as far as Angusshire.

✓ Of the remains of Roman camps, that at *Ardoch*, in Perthshire, supposed to have been occupied by Agricola in his fourth campaign in the year 84, is the most remarkable, and is reckoned the most complete. It appears to have been surrounded by three or four ditches and ramparts. Its length is 1,060, its breadth 900 feet: and, according to the ordinary distribution of Roman soldiers in their encampments, is reckoned to have been sufficient for 26,000 men. The passages across the ramparts to the gates upon the four sides are still visible; and within the camp, but not exactly in its centre, may be distinguished the *prætorium* or general's quarters.

The hills known by the name of *Dunipace*, on the banks of the Carron, and covering each at its base about an acre of ground, are imagined to have derived their appellation from the words *dunes pacis*, 'the Hills of Peace,' and to have been thrown up for the purpose of commemorating a peace between the Romans and Caledonians.

The remains of *Danish* camps are yet visible in many places of Scotland, and are distinguished from those of the Romans by being of a circular form, and generally placed in situations difficult of access. Circles of obelisks, called by some antiquarians, *druidical temples*, by others supposed to be places for the administration of justice among the Gothic nations, are found in several districts; one of the most remarkable is at Uig, in the isle of Lewis, Ross-shire. It consists of twelve stones, set on one end, each about seven feet high, and about six feet distant from each other. The centre is occupied by an obelisk of 13 feet. Three ranges of obelisks, each consisting of three stones, at nearly equal distances from each other, extend in the directions of east, west, and south. Towards the north a double row extends; each row consisting of six stones, placed exactly opposite to each other. The stones are rudely formed, without any appearance of having been artificially cut. A remarkable obelisk, adorned with a great variety of sculpture, stands about a mile from the town of Forres.

At Brechin, and at Abernethy, are *circular towers*, which have baffled the penetration of the antiquarians to discover either by whom they were erected, or for what purpose. That at Abernethy is 74 feet in height, and 48 feet in circumference, and consists of 64 courses of hewn stone. The height of the tower is 80 feet; that of an octagonal spire, which surmounts it, is 23 feet, making the whole elevation 103 feet. The diameter, at the foundation, is 16 feet.

Of what have been termed *vitrified forts*, the most remarkable is that of the hill of Knockfarril, near Dingwall, in Ross-shire. The enclosure is 120 feet long, and 40 feet broad. Another is situated on the hill of Craig-Phadrick, near Inverness, the enclosure being 80 paces long, and 27 broad. Similar vestiges are perceived on Dunevan, Nairnshire; at Fordan castle near Fort Augustus; on the west side of Glenevis in Lochaber; at the castle of Finhaven in the county of Angus; on the hill of Noth, Aberdeenshire; and in many other places. These vitrifications are by some supposed to have been the effect of art, by others, of nature. Some imagine them to have been intentionally vitrified, to form a compact wall before the use of lime had been discovered; others imagine the rampart to have been reared of a mixture of wood and stone, and the vitrification to have been effected by the wood having been set on fire by assailants from without.

CHAP. III.—TOPOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS—CLIMATE—SOIL—PRODUCTIONS.

Topographical Descriptions.] Tacitus, in his life of Agricola, illustrates the ancient geography of Scotland. Ptolemy's account of it is tolerably accurate, if we change the points of the compass, and turn the east to the north. Sir Robert Gordon of Straloch, after him Sir Robert Sibbald, and still more recently General Roy, have thrown great light on the antiquities of this country. Alexander Gordon's *Itinerarium Septentrionale*, is a specimen of the author's industry, if not of his accuracy. Concise descriptions of Scotland are given in the histories of Fordun, Major, Boethius, and Buchanan. Camden's topographical survey is superficial and inaccurate. Besides the partial accounts of this kingdom by Mackenzie, Maitland, Macpherson, &c. some tours of considerable merit have lately appeared. But the Statistical Account of every parish in Scotland, composed chiefly by the clergy, and published under the auspices of Sir John Sinclair, is the most circumstantial and authentic description that has ever been completed of any country, and certainly stands yet unrivalled as a statistical work. In the year 1807 the first volume of Chalmers's *Caledonia* appeared. This elaborate work is unfortunately at a stand in consequence of the death of its author. The three volumes which he lived to publish form a treasury of antiquarian and topographical information.⁸

⁸ The first delineations of this kingdom are extremely rude, and consists barely of a few names, with figures of the principal towns. The sea-coasts are indicated by straight lines. The frith of Forth, and several rivers, are represented by parallel lines, which bear no proportion to the area of the map. No divisions, natural or artificial, are marked; and little regard is shown to the proper positions of places. A map of this construction is inserted in a MS. of Harding's Chronicle, in the Bodleian Library, and copied in the Topography of Britain.

Bishop Leakey delineated a map of Scotland, a copy of which is in the Advocates' Library. Sexton's map was engraved by William Borough, at Rome, in 1578; and Speed's in 1612. The latter has the Orkney islands in the corner.

The imperfections and defects of former maps, rendered an accurate survey of the country essentially necessary. Accordingly, Colonel Watson was directed to employ proper engineers and artists for that purpose. Their surveys were begun in 1747, and completed in 1755. The original delineations—which are on a scale of 2 inches to the mile—were deposited in the King's Library. From Colonel Roy's observations during that survey, the Roman map of North Britain was handsomely engraved on a single sheet by J. Cheever. It contains many Roman stations, with the ridges of mountains and courses of rivers properly traced.

Timothy Pont was the first projector of a Scottish Atlas. About the year 1606, he surveyed all the counties and islands, making draughts on the spot, and adding cursory observations on monuments of antiquities and curiosities. After his death, his papers were delivered to Sir Robert Gordon of Straloch, in 1646—1648, who finished his design. All the information that had been collected was transmitted to Blaeu, a book-seller in Amsterdam, who published his *Atlas Scotiae* in 1665.

In the middle of last century, Murdoch Mackenzie, a surveyor of some eminence, made a survey of the Orkney islands, and the Hebrides; and in 1776, published a maritime survey of the west coast of Great Britain, from the British Channel to Cape Wrath. The northern coast of Scotland, about the year 1740, was surveyed by the Reverend Alexander Bryce; and his accurate map was published in 1744. Murdo Downie published a chart of the east coast of Scotland from Duncansby-head to the Staples, in 1792. Meanwhile, maps of several shires in North Britain, from actual surveys, were communicated to the public.

John Ainslie, landsurveyor, constructed, engraved, and published, A. D. 1789, a map of Scotland and the adjacent islands, in 9 sheets; to which were added, a table of distances, and the heights of remarkable mountains. This map, and that of Stockdale, were superseded by one published A. D. 1807, by Mr Arrowsmith. The inaccuracies and defects of this map were finally corrected and supplied by the trigonometrical survey, and a splendid map has since been executed by the same eminent engraver. Thomson's topographical atlas of Scotland now in course of publication is a very extensive, correct, and elegant work.

SHIRES.	SUBDIVISIONS OF SCOTLAND.	Proportion of the whole area under cultivation.	PRINCIPAL TOWNS.
1. BERWICK, . . .	MORRIS, a fertile and highly cultivated district on the north side of the Tyne.—LAVENDER, a pleasant, not fertile, district, 15 by 2-3 miles, gently sloping from N. to S. on either side of the Loos.—LAWSON, a hilly district, consisting of about 200 square miles. There are some strips of arable land.	40	Dunbar, Lander.
2. ROXBURGH, . . .	TEVIOTDALE, a district on each side of the Tyne, well cultivated, and embellished with seats and plantations.—LAVENDER, a pastoral district, consisting of about 52 square miles.	40	Jedburgh, Kelso, Haw Solkirk.
3. HILKIRK, . . .	ETTERICK FOREST, . . .	6	
4. DUMFRIES, . . .	NITHSDALE, a district, partly pastoral, partly well cultivated, and embellished with numerous seats and plantations.—ANWADALE, a fertile valley, extending 30 miles from north to south, and watered by the Annan.—RHEIDALE, a pastoral valley, on both sides of the Aik, containing some rich heath land, and many plantations.—SWERDALE, a pastoral district, diversified with green hills, and some heath of arable land.	35	Dumfries, Annan.
5. KIRKCUDBRIGHT, . . .	GALLOWAY, east part of.	34	Kirkcudbright.
6. WIGTON, . . .	GALLOWAY, west part of.	35	Wigton, Stranraer.
7. Ayr, . . .	CARRICK, a rocky, hilly, and indifferently fertile district, between the river Doon and the shire of Wigton.—KILPATRICK, a district of about 500 square miles, between Carrick and Cunningham, fertile and populous.—CUNNINGHAM, the northern division of the county. The lower part of it is well cultivated.		
8. RENFREW, . . .	STRATHGUTHRIE, . . .	49	Ayr, Kilmarnock, Irvine.
9. LANARK, . . .	CLYDEDALE, . . .	50	Renfrew, Paisley, Greenock, Port-Glasgow.
10. PEEBLES, . . .	TWISSDALE, . . .	45	Glasgow, Lanark, Hamilton.
11. HADDINGTON, . . .	EAST-LOTHIAN, . . .	18	Peebles.
12. EDINBURGH, . . .	MID-LOTHIAN, . . .	80	Waddington, Tranter.
13. LINLITHGOW, . . .	WEST-LOTHIAN, . . .	64	Edinburgh, Leith, Dalkeith.
14. STIRLING, . . .	STIRLING, . . .	75	Linlithgow, Queensferry.
15. DUMFRIES, . . .	LENNOX, ARROTH, CUMBERNAULD, &c.	67	Berwickshire.
16. CLACKMANNAN & KINROSS, . . .	{ Fife, part of.	63	Stirling, Falkirk.
17. FIFE, . . .	FIFE, . . .	70	Dumfries.
18. FORFAR, . . .	FORFAR, OF ARROTH, . . .	75	Kinross, Cairn, Allen.
19. PERTH, . . .	PARTS PROPER, a well cultivated district, stretching from 3 miles below Perth to within 4 miles of Dundee, watered by the Tay, and embellished with seats and plantations.—ARROTH, a mountainous country, whose subdivisions are—1. Strath-Tay, on each side of the Tay. 2. Strath-Tummel, 9 miles long, N. from Strath-Tay. 3. Strathguthrie, barren and thinly peopled tract, on each side of the Tay. 4. Glen-archie, a branch of Strathguthrie. 5. Glen-archie, a romantic valley at the foot of Benlachie.—BARADALACH, an extensive and mountainous country, subdivided into many districts and pastoral valleys.—LENNOX, a territory chiefly pastoral, 180 square miles, between Athol and Breckinridge.—Glen-archie, a pastoral valley, bounded by mountains, containing Strathguthrie and the town of Angus.—STONEMOY, a district stretching along the foot of the Grampians, from the Tay E. to the Fife.—STRATHGUTHRIE, on each side of the Fife. The lower part is well cultivated; the upper part is clothed with pasture.—MONTROSE, a district diversified with mountains, lakes, rivers, woods, and well cultivated fields.—DUNDEE, the most easterly, and most fertile division of Forthshire, bounded on the E. by the Tay. N. E. A considerable part of Strathguthrie lies in this shire.	70	St Andrews, Cupar, Kirkaldy, Dunfermline.
20. ARGYLE, . . .	ARGYLE PROPER, a hilly and barren tract, stretching from the Crinan canal N.E. to the further end of Loch-ave.—CAITHNESS, the most easterly division of the shire; consisting of barren hills, and some arable land.—Knapdale, consisting of hills, and tolerably fertile tracts, between Loch-Fine and the Sound of Jura.—Cowal, the most easterly subdivision, on the Clyde; hilly, affording excellent pasture.—Loch-ave, with part of the Hebrides, extending from Loch-Melfort 50 miles N. to Loch-Leven. Mid and Nether-Lorn are pleasant districts; Upper-Lorn is mountainous, with little arable land, but good pasturage. Glen-orchy and Glenelvie are mountainous, and indifferently fertile districts, consisting of about 500 square miles, westward of Rannoch and Breckinridge. Glen-orchy is a sequestered valley, on the south side of Loch-Leven. Morven is a triangular district, with some arable land, but bleak and mountainous. Ardschuan consists of vast mountains, little arable land, and abundance of pasture. Lochiel is a mountainous district, on a branch of the sea, N.E. of Fort-William.	65	Dundee, Forfar, Brechin, Montrose.
21. ARGYLE, . . .	ARGYLE PROPER, a hilly and barren tract, stretching from the Crinan canal N.E. to the further end of Loch-ave.—CAITHNESS, the most easterly division of the shire; consisting of barren hills, and some arable land.—Knapdale, consisting of hills, and tolerably fertile tracts, between Loch-Fine and the Sound of Jura.—Cowal, the most easterly subdivision, on the Clyde; hilly, affording excellent pasture.—Loch-ave, with part of the Hebrides, extending from Loch-Melfort 50 miles N. to Loch-Leven. Mid and Nether-Lorn are pleasant districts; Upper-Lorn is mountainous, with little arable land, but good pasturage. Glen-orchy and Glenelvie are mountainous, and indifferently fertile districts, consisting of about 500 square miles, westward of Rannoch and Breckinridge. Glen-orchy is a sequestered valley, on the south side of Loch-Leven. Morven is a triangular district, with some arable land, but bleak and mountainous. Ardschuan consists of vast mountains, little arable land, and abundance of pasture. Lochiel is a mountainous district, on a branch of the sea, N.E. of Fort-William.	22	Perth, Dundee.
22. KINCARDINE, . . .	MARATH, this county was anciently composed of thanesdoms, viz. Durris, Cowie, Arbuthnot, Aberlathnot, and Peterculter, which last was also called the Marath.	12	Inverary, Campbellton.
23. ABERDEEN, . . .	MARATH, the upper part of this extensive district abounds in woods, with patches of arable land. Formartin is a district on the east coast, between the Don and the Ythan.—BOCHAL, the most northerly division of the county; in general flat, and in some places well cultivated.—GARRACH, a rich and fertile valley, chiefly limited to the district whose waters fall into the Ugie.—NITHSDALE, &c. a district in the N.W. corner of the county, on both sides of the Bogie.	35	Stonhaven.
		26	Aberdeen, Peterhead.

SHERES.	SUBDIVISIONS OF SCOTLAND.	Population in 1871, and value of the shires.	PRINCIPAL TOWNS.
24. BANFF,	BANFF TOWNS, Auchindown, Strathaven, and Ballyvaughan, are hilly and wooded districts, with some arable land.—BOTTEN, a fertile district, near the capital, along the frith.—KESK, the western part of the low country of Banff.—BALVET, &c.	20	Banff, Cullen.
25. ELGIN,	MORAY, STRATHFERRY,	40	Elgin, Forres.
26. NAIRN,	West part of MORAY, FORTHROSE, a territory of about 5000 acres, chiefly arable, on the S. side of Cromarty frith.	50	Nairn.
27. INVERNESS, . .	AINA, a district stretching along the south side of Beaulieu frith. Strathpey, a district extending 30 miles on either side of the Spey. Strathbarn of Moy, a district watered by the upper part of the Findhorn. Strathnairn, a valley about 30 miles long, and 6 south of Inverness. Stratherrick, a sequestered valley on the Erisk, that runs south to Lochness.—GLASGOW, an extensive pastoral valley, whose river falls into Lochness. Glensharquhart, a winding fertile glen, 15 miles W.N.W. of Inverness. Strathglen, a pastoral and wooded tract, parallel to Lochness. Moldart, the most southerly subdivision of Inverness, a mountainous district.—GLIMMOART, a pastoral valley, watered by a stream that loses itself in Loch-Oich.—LOCH-ARNA, abounds in high mountains, thick forests, and good pasture.—BARDWICK, &c. the S.E. division of the shire, and chiefly a large valley on both sides of the Spey. Arisale, a rugged and pastoral district, between Knoydart and Morer. Morer, a mountainous and pastoral district on the W. coast, between Arisale and Knoydart. Knoydart, a mountainous district yielding good pasture, between Glenary and the Sound of the Ghye. Glenelg, the most northerly district in the shire, on the W. coast.	8	Inverness.
28. ROSS,	ROSS ABERNACH, between the friths of Beaulieu and Cromarty. Ferindonald, noted for its fine scenery, on the N. side of Cromarty frith.—STRATH-CARRON, a fine Highland district N. of Lochalsh, on the west coast.—LOCH-BACON, CROCCAN, &c. consisting of 5 glens, all in Cromarty, diversified with mountains, lakes, and inlets of the sea, between Loch-Froom on the S.W. and Sutherland on the N.E.	9	Tain, Dingwall, Fortrose.
29. SUTHERLAND, . .	SUTHERLAND, STRATHVENA, &c. the N.E. division of the shire. The arable land of this division does not exceed one part in 100, on the margins of rivers, and on the sea coast; but the pastures are good. Strathnaver proper is a more limited district on either side of the Naver. Assynt, the western division of the shire, abounds in lakes, streams, moor, and marshes. Ederachyle, a rugged district, consisting chiefly of rocks and almost inaccessible mountains. Ashit, a mountainous district in the N.W. corner of Scotland.	6	Dornoch.
30. CAITHNESS, . . .	CAITHNESS,	21	Wick.
31. CROMARTY, . . .	CROMARTY,	12	Cromarty.
32. ORKNEY ISLANDS, .	ISLANDS OF ORKNEY AND SUTHERLAND,	9	Kirkwall, Scalloway.
33. BUTE,	BUTE AND ARRAN,	80	Mothay.

Climate.] Situated in the midst of a great ocean, and in a high northern latitude, Scotland, as might naturally be expected, has a climate extremely variable. The cold, however, is not so intense during the winter as in similar latitudes on the continent; nor is it even equal to what is sometimes experienced in the south of England, though it is often more protracted. The greatest height of the thermometer that has yet been observed is 92°; and the lowest—which was at Edinburgh on the 31st of December, 1783—was 3° below zero. Its ordinary greatest range is from 84° to 8°; but it seldom maintains these extremes for any length of time, and the annual average-temperature may be estimated at from 45° to 47°. The general average-quantity of rain appears to be from 30 to 31 inches. It has been estimated, on an average of 12 years, that it rained or snowed annually on the west coast 205 days, leaving 160 fair; and on the east coast, that it rained or snowed 135 days, leaving 230 fair.—The winds are very variable both in their force and in their direction; and in the more elevated districts their variability is greatly heightened by the intervention of lofty mountains, with their adjacent glens or valleys. The glens serve in these situations, as funnels to receive the blast, which, gathering strength from the interruption it had met with from the mountains, often sweeps down in unexpected directions and with inconceivable fury. It would appear that the southerly winds are oftener experienced on the west than on the east coast. These winds, from the equable temperature of the

Atlantic, bring along with them genial warmth and moisture; but through the summer and autumn this abundant moisture often proves very injurious. Easterly winds are, on the contrary, cold, dry, and ungenial to animal and vegetable life; they are generally prevalent through the spring months, but frequently extend to those of summer. The following table of winds was prepared by Sir John Sinclair, as the average result of numerous observations:

<i>East Coast.</i>			
	<i>Days.</i>		<i>Days.</i>
1. From the north	25	6. South-west	5
2. North-east	29	7. West	2
3. East	62	8. North-west	219
4. South-east	14		
5. South	9		365
<i>West Coast.</i>			
1. Points from east to west by north			197
2. From west to south			139
3. From south to east			29
			365

Of various meteorological tables constructed in different places, the results are subjoined in a note.*

Soil.] The nature of the soil of Scotland is various; but, owing probably to the northerly situation and mountainous character of the country, it is in general inferior in fertility to that of England. There are, however, even in the most mountainous districts, many valleys or *straths* that are highly productive; and in the three Lothians, Berwickshire, Fifeshire, the carses of Stirling, Falkirk, and Gowrie, in Clydesdale, Strathearn of Perthshire, the province of Moray, &c. &c. are tracts of land equal to any in the whole island.

The following tables were digested by Sir John Sinclair from the Statistical account of Scotland:

L—STATE OF PROPERTY.

	<i>Number of Proprietors.</i>
1. Large properties or estates above £2,000 of valued rent, or £2,500 sterling of real rent	396
2. Middling properties, or estates from £2,000 to £500 of valued rent, or from £2,500 to £625 of real rent	1,077
3. Small properties, or estates under £500 of valued rent, or £625 of real rent	6,181
4. Estates belonging to corporate bodies	114
Total number of proprietors in Scotland	7,798

* In the western parts of Stirlingshire and at Castle-Huntly, in the carse of Gowrie, the greatest range of the barometer during a period of 11 years, was 2.8 inches; the greatest height being 30.9, and the least 28.1. At Gordon-Castle, the mean height of the barometer, in the year 1811, was 29.75 inches. At Belmont-Castle, in Strathmore the mean height of the thermometer, for 10 years, was 29.63 inches. In Orkney, the range of the barometer is stated at 3 inches. At Castle-Huntly, the mean height of the thermometer, in 12 years, was 50.33°; the greatest height being 83°, and the least 16°. By the Belmont tables, for 10 years from 1781, the greatest height of the thermometer was 84°, and the least was zero. The mean height for these 10 years was 46.35°. At Edinburgh, the greatest height of the thermometer, for a period of 5 years, viz. from 1765 to 1792, was 89°, and the least 11°. In the upper ward of Clydesdale, the mean height of the thermometer, for 5 years, beginning with 1768, was 49°, and for 5 years beginning with 1768, it was 47.75°. The time of making the above observations was at 9 o'clock A.M. In the Orkneys, the medium temperature of the year is stated to be 48°. At Duddingston, in Mid-Lothian, the mean temperature, during a period of eight years, was 46.57°. At Drymen, in Stirlingshire, the temperature, during 14 years, was 45°.

II.—PROPORTION OF SOIL CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED.

1. Number of acres fully or partially cultivated.	Eng. Acres. 5,043,450
2. Acres uncultivated, including woods and plantations	13,900,550
Total extent of Scotland in English acres	18,944,000

III.—EXTENT OF WOODS AND PLANTATIONS.

1. Extent of plantations	Eng. Acres. 412,228
2. — natural woods	501,469
Total	913,695

IV.—NATURE OF THE PRODUCTIVE SOILS IN SCOTLAND.

1. Sandy soils	Eng. Acres. 263,771
2. Gravel	681,862
3. Improved mossy soils	411,096
4. Cold or inferior clays	510,265
5. Rich clays	987,070
6. Loams	1,869,193
7. Alluvial, haugh, or carse land	320,193
	5,043,450

Productions of the Soil.] The crops cultivated in Scotland are, with a few exceptions, similar to those of England. In the districts that may be properly termed agricultural, wheat is very generally raised; but oats may be said to form the principal crop, except in a few of the most fertile districts. Barley is also very general; and, in the carse districts, beans and pease. Potatoes are cultivated to a great extent, and all manner of green crops. Hemp is also grown, and in some places flax, with considerable advantage. Horticulture and arboriculture are making rapid progress in every part of the country. Apples and other fruits are in abundance; and many extensive tracts of waste-land, lately planted with wood, evince by the healthy and flourishing appearance of the plantations that the climate and soil are well-adapted for rearing forest-trees, particularly in the interior of the country. The Scotch fir is the most common pine in the country, but the larch has been lately introduced, and from the value of its wood, as well as the rapidity of its growth, is likely to prove a valuable acquisition. The ash, elm, plane, beech, oak, &c. &c. give a pleasing variety to the plantations, and are frequently found of large size. The juniper shrub grows naturally on the hills, and the whortle or blueberry abounds on the highest mountains. *Alga marina* grows in great luxuriance on the rocky coasts; and, burnt into kelp, forms a valuable article of commerce. The following tables are taken from the General Report of Scotland:

I.—NUMBER OF ACRES IN ONE YEAR UNDER THE DIFFERENT CROPS OR IN FALLOW.

1. Grass, in hay and pasture	Acres. 2,489,725
2. Wheat	140,095
3. Barley	280,193
4. Oats	1,260,362
5. Rye	500
6. Beans and pease	118,000
7. Potatoes	80,000
8. Turnips	407,125
9. Flax	16,500
10. Fallow	218,950
11. Gardens and orchards	32,000
	5,043,450

II.—VALUE OF CROPS.

	Acres.	Per Acre.	Amount.	
1. Grass lands	2,489,725	at £2	£4,979,450	0 0
2. Wheat	140,095	at 11	1,541,045	0 0
3. Barley	280,193	at 8	2,241,544	0 0
4. Oats	1,260,362	at 7	8,822,534	0 0
5. Rye	500	at 6	3,000	0 0
6. Beans and pease	118,000	at 6	708,000	0 0
7. Potatoes	80,000	at 8	640,000	0 0
8. Turnips	407,125	at 4	1,628,500	0 0
9. Flax	16,500	at 8	132,000	0 0
10. Gardens	32,000	at 15	480,000	0 0
Productive acres	4,824,500	Produce	£21,176,073	0 0
Fallow	218,950			
Total cultivated, 5,043,450; average per acre, including fallow, £4 4s. nearly.				
Uncultivated, 13,900,550, including woodlands, 3s. per acre			2,085,082	10 0
Total land produce			£23,261,155	10 0

III.—LIVE STOCK AND THEIR PRODUCE.

1. Horses, 243,489; value of their work when full grown, or increase in their work while young, yearly, at £10 each	£2,434,890	0 0
2. Cattle, 1,047,142, annual value of dairy produce, and annual increase in the worth of feeding cattle, at £6 each	6,282,852	0 0
3. Sheep, 2,850,867, at 10s. each	1,425,433	10 0
4. Hogs, 500,000, produce 30s. each	750,000	0 0
5. Lesser stock, poultry, &c.	250,000	0 0
Total produce of live stock	£11,143,175	10 0

This sum is included in the general estimate of land-produce already given.

Forests.] Scotland was, in the days of Agricola, over-run with woods and forests; but as the inhabitants gradually advanced in the arts of agriculture and civilized life, the forests disappeared, and our improvident ancestors seldom thought of replacing them by plantations. The famous *Sylva Caledonia*—which, till cut down by successive armies, formed an impassable barrier to the conquests of Rome—has long since vanished. The whole county of Selkirk was formerly denominated *Etterick Forest*. A great part of Teviotdale was also called *Jed fores*; these were the remains of *Sylva Caledonia* in the south. There was also the forest of *Marr* in the west of Aberdeenshire, where now remains the forest of *Abernethy*, extending to Cairngorm. In Sutherland was the forest of *Sletadale*, on the north of Dunrobin; and in the north of the same county is marked *Parff* forest, between Ashir and Dunan, to the south of which was *Reay* forest, with those of *Derrymore* and *Dirrymina* on the north and south of Loch Shin. Remains of the same forest exist in *Rannoch*, *Glenmore*, and *Strathspey*; and in *Alfarig* in Ross-shire, and *Boachill-tive* forest in the north of Argyleshire. Some of these forests extend 30 or 40 miles in length, and would undoubtedly be of great advantage to the country, and pecuniary wealth to the proprietors, did not the want of roads, and the distance from the sea, preclude the possibility of land-carriage; while the plan of floating down the rivers is not practicable on account of their rapidity and cataracts. Notwithstanding these obstacles, however, several companies have succeeded in floating timber upon the

Spey and Dee, by cutting canals where the falls are so high as to injure the wood.

Animals.] The domestic animals of Scotland are the same as those of England. Black cattle are usually of small size among the mountains; in the low country they are large. Galloway has long been noted for its black cattle, and a breed of horses of diminutive size; the Lanarkshire horse is admirably fitted for the draught. Goats are not common even in the Highlands; and are seldom seen in the low country. Sheep are very numerous. Many parts of the country are particularly well-adapted for the purpose of feeding them. Their wool is naturally good, and by the attention which has been bestowed in improving the breeds, now equals that of most countries. The shepherd's dog, so celebrated for its sagacity, has been said to be peculiar to Scotland; but this appears to be a mistake.

The wild animals of Scotland, like those of England, are foxes, badgers, otters, hares, rabbits, hedge-hogs, weasels, moles, stags. The roe, unknown in England, is still found here. Wolves were formerly common, but were finally extirpated in 1680. The wild-cat is sometimes seen. Beavers formerly existed here, but are now unknown. A species of wild cattle, formerly plentiful, still exist in the woods belonging to the duke of Hamilton. They are milk-white, with black ears and muzzles. Eagles and falcons are often seen in the north. The singing-birds of Scotland are the same as those of England, with the exception of the nightingale, which is here unknown. The pheasant and wood-cock are becoming more common. The extensive heathy districts of this country abound in grouse, ptarmigan, black game, and other species of fowls common in such regions. The game in the low country are, partridges, plovers, snipes, and a variety of other birds. Sea-fowl are still more numerous here than on the coasts of England.

The coasts abound in fish of various kinds, such as haddocks, sturgeon, cod, whittings, turbot, skate; the number and excellence of the herrings have long been celebrated. The whale is sometimes seen off the coast; and the basking-shark is said to visit the western shores. Shellfish are plentiful, and in great variety. The rivers abound in salmon and trout. Every lake affords pike and perch; but several of the species of fish known in the rivers of England have never been seen in Scotland. In several of the rivers a species of muscle occurs, in which pearls are sometimes found of considerable size.

Minerals.] Gold has been found in that part of Scotland known by the name of the Leadhills; but the quantity was very small, and did not repay the labour of procuring it. We are indeed told that in one year the Scottish mint coined £48,000 sterling of native gold; but we are not told how much had been expended in the search for it. A mine of silver was formerly opened in the Ochils; but it now furnishes only cobalt. A small portion of silver is found in the ore of Scottish lead. Copper has been found in different places, but only in small quantities. Mercury is not unknown; but the quantity procured is very inconsiderable. A productive mine of antimony has been opened in Dumfriesshire. The most plentiful of the Scottish minerals are lead, iron, and coal. The lead-mines in the south of Lanarkshire and in Dumfriesshire are well-known. Iron is found in many places; and the quantity is such as to supply several very extensive works. Coal is not less plentiful than iron, forming an important source of wealth to the country, and greatly aiding the manu-

facturer in many of his undertakings.¹⁰ It is supposed that the largest untouched field of coal in Europe exists in Scotland, in that singular tract of barren country in Carlisle and Cambusnethan parishes, N. of the Clyde, continuing, at intervals, as far as Douglas parish, Glenbuck, and Muirkirk, in Ayrshire, and thence to the town of Ayr. Little coal has hitherto been found in the northern parts of Scotland; but whether the search has been properly made seems to be uncertain. The Lothians and Fifeshire abound with this mineral, which also extends along the Ayrshire coast and Renfrewshire; near Irvine is found a singular vein of coal called ribbon-coal.

The other Scottish minerals are bismuth, manganese, wolfram, plumbago, and zinc. Marble of various colours, and susceptible of the highest polish, is found in many places. Fine statuary marble is procured in Assynt and Blair Gowrie, in Perthshire. Fine black marble is found near Fort William; and dark brown, mixed with white, occurs in Cambuslang parish, Clydesdale. Jasper is found in various parts. Fuller's-earth occurs in Kintyre; and it is supposed that there is a vast mass of talc in the mountains originating the Findhorn river, as large pebbles of it are sometimes found in that stream. Most of the mountains belonging to the Grampian chain are granite. According to Williams, the lofty Ben-nevis is one solid mass of red granite, which he traced, at the base, for four miles along the course of a rivulet. The elevation of this mass he computes at 3,600 feet, and above it are stratified rocks of extreme hardness. The granite of this mountain is said to equal the Egyptian in beauty. From Portsoy to Trouphead are found vast masses of that singular kind of granite called *Moses' tables*, which when polished exhibits something like Hebrew characters on a white ground. Whether gems and precious stones, properly so called, are found in Scotland, has been doubted: because quartz and fluor spar assume various hues, and what are called sapphires, rubies, and emeralds, fall under one or other of these descriptions; while the real gems belong to the argillaceous class, and when minutely examined, consist of very thin layers, a form peculiar to the argillaceous class. However this be, the following gems have already been enumerated, as natives of Scotland, viz:—Precious Beryl, Schorlite, Cinnamon stone, Zircon, Topaz, Garnet, and Amethyst. Of these gems, the most rare are the Schorlite and Zircon. The Scottish Topaz is found in many of the Highland mountains, particularly the Cairngorm, and in Goatfell in Arran; they are generally called Cairngorm stones, from the mountain of that name, and are of various hues. Amethysts are pretty frequently to be met with, particularly in the mountain of Lochnagaraid in Aberdeenshire; some of them are an inch in diameter, and worth from 30 to 40 guineas each.

Mineral Springs.] The Mineral waters of Scotland are numerous, but not so famous as those of England. The chief are Moffat wells, in the south; Pitcaithly, in Perthshire; and Peterhead, in the north.

Tables of Productions.] The following Tables are extracted from Sir John Sinclair's 'General Report of Scotland':

¹⁰ Pope Pius II. in his description of Europe, written about the year 1450, mentions his astonishment at beholding black stones—so he denominates coal—given as alms to the poor of Scotland. But this mineral may be traced to the 12th century. George Sinclair, professor of philosophy at Glasgow, at the latter period of the 17th century, is the earliest writer that gives an account of the Scottish coal-mines, and explains with tolerable accuracy the method of working coal, and the subterraneous dykes of which interesting the strata.

I.—MINERAL STATE.

Coals.

1. Extent of the great coal field of Scotland, . . .	Acres	600,000
2. Annual consumption		172
3. Quantity annually consumed in tons		2,500,000
4. Value of the coal annually consumed, at an average of 6s. 8d. per ton	£	833,333 6 8
5. Expense of labour 5s. 10d. per ton		729,166 13 4
6. Rent to the proprietor, 10d. per do.		104,166 13 4

Lime.

1. Quantity of lime annually manufactured in Scotland	Bolls	3,000,000
Amounting in Winchester bushels, at four bushels per boll, to		12,000,000
2. Value at 2s. 6d. per boll	£	375,000
3. Extent of land annually dressed with lime	Acres	100,000

Iron.

1. Number of blast furnaces		21
2. Quantity annually produced	Tons	32,760
3. Value at £7 per ton	£	229,320
4. Number of persons annually employed		7,650

Lead.

1. Number of bars of lead annually produced		65,000
2. Annual value at £2 per bar		130,000

Value of Mineral Productions.

1. Coal	£	833,333 6 8
2. Lime		375,000 0 0
3. Iron		229,320 0 0
4. Lead		130,000 0 0
5. Various articles		30,000 0 0
	£	1,597,653 6 8

II.—FISHERIES.

1. Salmon and fresh water fisheries	£	150,000
2. The white sea fishery		400,000
3. The herring fishery		500,000
4. The whale fishery		200,000
5. Shell fish		50,000
	£	1,300,000

III.—AMOUNT OF TERRITORIAL PRODUCTIONS.

1. Gross produce of land	£	23,261,155 10 0
2. Minerals		1,597,653 6 8
3. Fisheries		1,300,000 0 0
	£	26,158,808 16 8
4. The rents of lands, mines, fisheries, kelp, &c. for one year, ending 5th April, 1813		5,041,779 11 11
5. Amount of produce absorbed by the expense of cultivation, and the profit of farmers, gardeners, and other dealers in the productions of the soil ; also by colliers, fishermen, &c.	£	21,117,028 16 1

CHAP. IV.—COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

PREVIOUS to the union, Scotland was in possession of few manufactures and of little trade. Closely linked to France by alliances and numerous treaties, a trade was conducted with that country in wines, &c. A commercial treaty also existed with the Netherlands, and Scotland had a staple port for the reception of its merchandise, first at Dort, and afterwards at Campvere. One adventure had been undertaken which bespoke some genius for commercial enterprise. It is certain that the expedition to take possession of Darien for the prosecution of the East and West India trade was founded upon sound principles, and had it been successful would have greatly benefited the country. The miscarriage of this scheme, owing to the illiberal conduct of another commercial company, is a disgrace to the reign in which it happened, more especially as the Scots at that time had a free and independent parliament. To the disgust the Scots conceived on account of the conduct of the English in the Darien scheme, to some invasions of their rights afterwards committed, and to the entails and settlements of the great family-estates, with the remains of the feudal institution,—we must attribute the languor that long hung over the commercial enterprises of the Scots, even after the Union had consolidated the interests of both nations into those of one kingdom. It was not till after the rebellion of 1745 that the true value of Scotland was discovered; and much is certainly due to the talents of Mr Pelham, who was first minister at that period, for the liberal and enlightened encouragement which Scottish trade and commerce first received under his administration. Pitt, earl of Chatham, adopted his predecessor's views with regard to Scotland, and took every opportunity of encouraging the arts, manufactures, and trade of Scotland, which have prodigiously increased since his time.

Imports and Exports.] From the middle of the last century, the rapid increase of the national trade may be dated. In 1755 the imports in round numbers were £465,411; and the exports £535,576. In 1801 the former amounted to £2,579,914; and the latter to £2,844,502. In 1825 the imports had increased to £4,994,304; and the exports to £5,842,269. The following is an account of the official value of the exports from and the imports into Scotland, from 1790 to 1825, both inclusive:

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1790	£1,688,337	£1,235,405	1808	£2,152,683	£2,816,342
1791	1,981,630	1,296,520	1809	3,264,069	4,365,093
1792	1,761,657	1,230,884	1810	3,671,158	4,740,239
1793	1,431,842	1,023,399	1811	2,427,917	3,895,656
1794	1,443,895	1,084,611	1812	2,775,183	6,115,738
1795	1,268,520	976,991	1813	3,182,223	7,829,995
1796	1,724,610	1,322,723	1814	3,757,058	8,185,657
1797	1,493,084	1,217,121	1815	3,447,853	8,997,709
1798	1,903,727	1,669,197	1816	2,539,231	6,683,652
1799	2,353,590	1,926,630	1817	3,426,753	7,753,548
1800	2,212,790	2,346,069	1818	4,130,360	6,770,033
1801	2,579,944	2,844,502	1819	3,240,347	5,871,124
1802	2,912,213	2,602,858	1820	3,275,307	5,895,778
1803	2,497,732	2,053,229	1821	4,086,507	6,113,351
1804	2,611,942	2,252,309	1822	3,743,172	6,405,590
1805	3,010,978	2,564,867	1823	3,910,252	5,711,668
1806	3,033,968	2,716,614	1824	4,356,261	5,899,431
1807	3,039,157	2,736,838	1825	4,994,304	5,842,269

Shipping.] The coasting trade to the south is carried on from Leith and other eastern ports; while Glasgow is the great emporium of commerce with the West Indies. The shipping of North Britain, at an early period, was inconsiderable. Even so late as 1656, the whole vessels belonging to Scotland, from 300 to 250 tons each, amounted only to 137, carrying 5,736 tons." In 1760 the shipping employed in fisheries, and in

"The reader will be gratified by comparing the present state of Scottish shipping with Tucker's account of it in 1656. Tucker, who was sent by the English government for the purpose of introducing order into the collection of the excise and customs, gives an account of almost every harbour and creek frequented by shipping on the Scottish coast. Of 'the towne of *Leith*,' he says, "This place, formerly, and soe at this time, is indeede a storehouse not onely for her owne traders, but alsoe for the merchants of the city of Edinburgh, this being the port thereof; and did not that city (jealous of her owne safety) obstruct and impede the groweing of this place, it would, from her slave, in a few yeares become her rival." "Aberdore, Kinghorne, Kircaldy, Disert, Wema, Loven, Ely, St Minas, Petten-Weym, Ainstere, Craill, St Androes, and South Ferry," are described as "pittifull small townes on the coast, inhabited by seamen, colliers, salt makers, and such like people." Of *Dundee* he says: "The towne of Dundee was sometime a towne of riches and trade, but the many rencounters it hath met with in all the time of domestick comotions, and her obstinacy and pride of late yeares rendring her a prey to the souldier, have much shaken and abated her former grandeur, and notwithstanding all, she remaynes still, though not glorious, yett not contemptible." Then comes *Aberdeen*: "This being now a place more for study than trade, hath willingly resigned her interest that way unto the New towne, which is noe despicable Burgh, either for building or largeness, having a very stately mercat place, sundry houses well built, with a safe harbour before it for vessells to ride in. But the widnesse of the place, from the inlett of the sea coming in with a narrowe winding gut, and beating in store of sand with its waves, hath rendered it somewhat shallowe in a greate part of it, and soe lesse usefull of late than formerly. But the inhabitants are remedying this inconvenience, by lengthning their key, and bringing it up close to a necke of land, which, jetting out eastward, towards an headland lysing before it, makes the coming in soe straight." The Aberdonians have been engaged in 'lengthning their key,' or some such operations, for nearly two centuries; and, for aught we know, this employment may occupy them for centuries to come. Mr Tucker appears to have had a prophetic insight into the undeveloped capabilities of Glasgow: "This towne, situated in a pleasant and fruitful soyle, and consisting of four streets, handsomely built in forme of a crosse, is one of the most considerable burghs of Scotland, as well for the structure as trade of it. The inhabitants (all but the students of the colledge which is here) are traders and dealers: some for Ireland with small smiddy coales, in open boates, from foure to ten tonnes, from whence they bring hoopoes, rongees, berrell staves, meale, oates, and butter; some for France with pladding, coales, and herring (of which there is a greate fishing yearly in the Westernne Sea) for which they retorne salt, paper, rosin, and prunes; some to Norway for timber; and every one with their neighbours the Highlanders, who come hither from the Isles and Westernne parts; in summer by the Mull of Cantyre, and in winter by the Torbau to the head of the Loquh Fyn, which is a small neck of sandy land, over which they usually drawe their small boates into the Firth of Dunbarton) and soe pass up in the Cluyde with pladding, dry hides, goat, kid, and deere skins, which they sell, and purchase with their price such comodities and provisions as they stand in neede of, from time to time. Here hath likewise been some who have adventured as farre as the Barbadoes; but the losse they have sustayned by reason of their goeing out and coming home late every yeare, have made them discontinue going thither any more. The situation of this towne in a plentiful land, and the mercantile genius of the people, are strong signes of her increase and groweth, were shee not chequed and kept under by the shallowness of her River, every day more and more increasing and filling up, soe that noe vessells of any burden can come neerer up then within fourteene miles, where they must unlade, and send up their timber and Norway trade in rafts on floates, and all other comodities by three or four tonnes of goods at a time, in small cobbles or boates of three, foure, five, and none of above six tonnes, a boate." The Dutch at this time seem to have had nearly all the foreign trade of Scotland in their own hands: trading in "pladding, coals, salt herring, and salmond." Her bays and creeks were quite familiar to them; and they carried on a contraband trade with the natives in spite of every exertion of His Highness's Honourable Commissioners. The following is Mr Tucker's abstract of the shipping and tonnage of Scotland in 1656:

Leith.—"There are belonging to the port of Leith and members, some twelve or fourteene vessells, two or three whereof are of some two or three hundred tons a piece, the rest small vessells for ladeing and carryeing out salt, and to and from the coast of England, the chiefe part of the trade of these parts being driven thence, the rest being from Norway, the East-land, Low-countrie, or France, immediately from the places themselves."

Brunt Isle, 7 ships—1 of 40 tons, 2 of 30 tons, 1 of 24 tons, 3 of 20 tons. Kinghorne,

foreign and coasting trade, consisted of 999 ships, carrying 53,913 tons. In 1800 the shipping of Scotland amounted to 2,415, carrying 171,728 tons, and 14,820 men. The number of British ships which entered the ports of Scotland during 1825, was 1,468, carrying 2,144,680 tons, and 123,120 men; and the number of foreign ships, during the same period, was 6,967, carrying 958,950 tons, and 52,630 men. A parliamentary paper, published in 1828, gives the following account of the number of ships, with their tonnage, registered in Scotland, from which it will be seen that Greenock has the greatest number of ships of any Scottish port; and that Aberdeen owns the greatest amount of tonnage. The ports on the Clyde own nearly as much as all Ireland, the tonnage of which during 1828 only amounted to 97,369 tons, not one-third of the total tonnage of Scotland. The tonnage belonging to Aberdeen is as great as that of Dublin and Belfast—the two principal Irish ports—put together:

PORTS.	Number of ships above 100 tons.	Number of ships below 100 tons.	Total amount of registered tonnage.
Aberdeen . . .	202	134	46,587
Anstruther . . .	9	87	4,130
Banff	4	138	6,431
Bo'ness	22	99	8,740
Campbeltown . . .	5	64	3,068
Dumfries	17	158	12,283
Dundee	105	99	24,227
Glasgow	111	113	36,220
Grangemouth . . .	83	127	24,635
Greenock	105	320	37,786
Inverness	12	69	5,092
Irvine	60	77	14,230
Kirkcaldy	46	58	11,540
Kirkwall	3	56	3,247
Leith	95	162	26,107
Lerwick	1	77	2,622
Montrose	64	106	15,778
Perth	9	48	4,116
Port-Glasgow . . .	19	31	7,155
Stornoway	7	65	3,133
Stranraer		42	1,448
Thurso	4	30	2,241
Total	963	2160	300,836

1 ship of 50 tons. Kirkcaldy, 12 ships—2 of 100 tons, 1 of 70 tons, 3 of 40 tons, 3 of 36 tons, 1 of 24 tons, 2 of 30 tons. Disert, 4 ships—1 of 50 tons, 2 of 20 tons, 1 of 14 tons. Wema, 6 ships—3 of 20 tons, 1 of 18 tons, 1 of 14 tons, 1 of 12 tons. Leven, 2 ships—1 of 20 tons, 1 of 18 tons. Ely, 2 ships—1 of 50 tons, 1 of 40 tons. St Minas, 1 ship of 36 tons. Pitten Wema, 2 ships—1 of 100 tons, 1 of 80 tons. Alnster, 10 ships—1 of 50 tons, 1 of 40 tons, 1 of 30 tons, 1 of 25 tons, 1 of 20 tons, 2 of 15 tons, 1 of 14 tons, 2 of 13 tons. Crail, 1 ship of 90 tons. St Andrews, 1 ship of 20 tons. South-ferry, 1 ship of 18 tons. Dundee, 10 ships—2 of 120 tons, 1 of 90 tons, 1 of 60 tons, 1 of 55 tons, 1 of 50 tons, 1 of 40 tons, 1 of 30 tons, 2 of 25 tons. Montrose, 12 ships—1 of 26 lasts, 2 of 18 lasts, 2 of 16 lasts, 2 of 12 lasts, 1 of 7 lasts, 3 of 6 lasts, 1 of 5 lasts. Aberdeen, 9 ships—1 of 80 tons, 1 of 70 tons, 1 of 60 tons, 3 of 50 tons, 2 of 30 tons, 1 of 20 tons. Fraserburgh, 4 ships of 20 tons. Peterhead, 1 ship of 20 tons. Inverness, 1 ship of 10 tons. Garmouth, 1 ship of 12 tons. Cromarty, 1 ship of 16 tons. Thirsoe, 2 ships of 30 tons. Orkney, 3 ships—1 of 15 chaldrons, 1 of 13 chaldrons, 1 of 12 chaldrons. Glasgow, 12 ships—3 of 150 tons, 1 of 140 tons, 2 of 100 tons, 1 of 50 tons, 3 of 30 tons, 1 of 15 tons, 1 of 12 tons. Renfrew, 3 or 4 boats—of 5 or 6 tons a piece. Irwin, 3 or 4—the biggest not exceeding 16 tons. Ayre, 3 ships—1 of 100 tons, 1 of 40 tons, 1 of 30 tons; with two barques, 1 of 3 tons, and 1 of 4 tons.

General Corn Trade.] The quantity of corn shipped at all the ports of Scotland (including Berwick), in the four years ending October 1827, was 2,353,000 quarters, or 588,000 quarters per annum on the average. The quantity landed at all the ports was 3,448,000, or 862,000 quarters per annum, including what comes from Ireland. Scotland was recently, therefore, an importing country to the extent of about 270,000 quarters per annum, exclusive of foreign grain; and this is probably about one-fifteenth part of the whole consumption. The meal and flour exported and imported nearly balanced each other. By making a kind of debtor and creditor account for the three principal species of grain, we shall learn in what species the general deficiency is:

IMPORTED AND EXPORTED ANNUALLY, COASTWISE, AT ALL THE PORTS IN SCOTLAND.

	<i>Barley.</i> Qrs.	<i>Oats.</i> Qrs.	<i>Wheat.</i> Qrs.
Imported,.....	305,000	380,000	102,000
Exported,.....	185,000	199,000	159,000

The result seems curious. Scotland, it appears, is indebted to the sister-kingdoms every year for 120,000 quarters of barley, and 180,000 of oats, the two species of grain for which her own climate is best adapted; while on the other hand, she sends annually to England about 60,000 quarters of wheat, a species of grain which many Englishmen believe will scarcely grow in Scotland. About four-fifths of the oats imported comes from Ireland, and three-fourths of the barley from England.

Consumption of Malt and Spirits.] In the year ending 5th April 1829 there were 3,711,412 bushels of malt manufactured in Scotland, and 28,216,984 in England; in the same year the quantity of strong beer manufactured in Scotland amounted to 84,902 barrels, and of table beer to 179,660 barrels; while there were 4,888,985 barrels of the former, and 1,083,291 of the latter consumed in England. It is generally understood that the greater proportional quantity of ardent spirits made in Scotland casts the balance of general sobriety in favour of England; and it appears that in the year ending 5th January 1828 there were 4,752,199 gallons of spirits manufactured in Scotland for home consumption, while during the same period only 6,671,562 gallons paid duty for home consumption in England. But it should be recollected that in addition to the actual consumption of home-made spirits in England, a much larger proportional quantity of foreign wines and spirits is consumed in that country than in Scotland; and that of the spirits imported into England—which amounted in the year ending 5th January 1828 to 2,548,118 gallons—a great proportion, nearly the whole indeed, is of an overproof quality for the purpose of being afterwards rectified and reduced into a larger quantity of what is called British gin. In 1708, the quantity of spirits which paid duty as manufactured in Scotland, amounted to only 50,844 gallons; and in 1791 it amounted to 1,696,000 gallons. At both these periods, however, a vast quantity of home-made and foreign spirits was introduced into public consumption by smugglers,—a circumstance which very rarely occurs now. Considering the tendency of ardent spirits to brutalize the habits, to inflame the passions, and to prevent all prudent savings, the extraordinary quantity of spirits consumed in Scotland is deeply to be regretted.

Manufactures.] Without entering into extensive details on this subject, it may be sufficient to observe, that, about 30 years ago, manufactures in many towns were carried on to a great extent. Cotton cloths alone employed, in Glasgow and its neighbourhood, 15,000 looms, and 135,000

persons. Queen's ware, and the inkle manufacture, were likewise important branches in that city. In and near Paisley, 10,000 persons of all descriptions were employed in the manufacture of silk gauze, and 12,000 in working lawns, muslins, and cambrics; besides other trades, which were very productive. The value of linen cloth stamped in Scotland for sale, A. D. 1750, was 361,736*l.* 12*s.* 5*d.*; in 1812 it was 1,020,493*l.* 11*s.* 2*d.* The amount of linen exported from Scotland in the year ending 5th January 1828 was 14,945,299 yards, exclusive of Irish linen; the official value of which was £803,267. The value of the woollen, linen, and cotton manufactures, in 1812, were estimated at upwards of 8,000,000*l.* sterling. The hat and paper manufactures, with those of iron and other metals, were then supposed to amount to £2,000,000; ship-building, and those branches in which timber is employed, exclusive of houses, to £1,000,000; and leather, brewery, distillery, pottery, soap, salt, and tobacco, to £2,500,000. Common and flint-glass, to a great amount, is prepared in Dumbarton, Leith, and other parts of the country. Diapers are wrought in Dunfermline to the value of £60,000 a year. Checks and ticks are staple commodities in Kirkcaldy. Coarse linen, sailcloth, osenaburghs, &c. are manufactured in Dundee to the official value of £600,000 annually; and likewise in Arbroath, Forfar, and Aberdeen. Paper-mills, delft-houses, and sugar-houses, have been erected in several towns and villages. Extensive iron-works are established in Fife, on the Clyde, and at Carron; in the last of which more than 2000 workmen are occasionally employed. The whale, and herring-fisheries, are great sources of wealth; and the manufacture of kelp recently employed 120,000 individuals in our western islands, but has sadly declined within these three years in consequence of the introduction of a cheaper alkali into the market. The coal-trade is well-known, and extremely productive. The exportation of black cattle to England has been highly advantageous to this country. Including minor branches, the whole manufactures in Scotland will annually exceed in value 14,000,000*l.* sterling, including the price of raw materials. Sir John Sinclair in his General Report calculates this sum as follows:

	<i>Value of raw material.</i>	<i>Expenses of labour and profit.</i>	<i>Total value of manufactured articles.</i>
1. Woollen	£300,000	150,100	450,000
2. Linen	831,149	940,851	1,775,000
3. Cotton	1,832,224	5,132,362	6,964,486
4. Inferior Branches	1,300,000	3,700,000	5,000,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	Total 4,266,373	9,923,313	14,189,486

Scotish Banks.] The following list, distinguishing the Charter Banks, the number of partners in banks unchartered, and the head office of each, was published from official authority in 1826:

<i>NAMES OF FIRMS OF BANKS.</i>	<i>No. of Partners.</i>	<i>NAMES OF FIRMS OF BANKS.</i>	<i>No. of Partners.</i>
1 Bank of Scotland, Edinburgh	Charter	16 Fife Banking Company, Cupar Fife . . .	20
2 Royal Bank of Scotland, do. . . .	Charter	17 Greenock Banking Co. Greenock . . .	13
3 British Linen Company, do. . . .	Charter	18 Glasgow Banking Co. Glasgow . . .	19
4 Aberdeen Banking Co. Aberdeen . . .	80	19 Hunters and Co. Ayr . . .	18
5 Do. Town and Country Bank, do. . .	446	20 Leith Banking Company, Leith . . .	15
6 Arbroath Banking Co. Arbroath . . .	112	21 National Bank of Scotland, Edinburgh	128
7 Carrick, Brown, and Co. or Shp Bank, Glasgow, . . .	3	22 Montrose Bank, Montrose . . .	17
8 Commercial Banking Co. of Scotland, Edinburgh . . .	521	23 Paisley Banking Company, Paisley . . .	4
9 Commercial Banking Co. Aberdeen . .	15	24 Paisley Union Bank, do. . .	147
10 Dundee Banking Company, Dundee . .	61	25 Perth Banking Company, Perth . . .	19
11 Dundee New Bank, do. . . .	6	26 Perth Union Bank, do. . .	8
12 Dundee Commercial Bank, do. . . .	202	27 Ramsay, Bonara, and Co. Edinburgh . .	6
13 Dundee Union Bank, do. . . .	85	28 Renfrewshire Banking Co. Greenock . .	4
14 Exchange and Deposit Company, Edin.	1	29 Shetland Bank, Lerwick . . .	7
15 Falkirk Banking Company, Falkirk . .	5	30 Sir William Forbes and Co. Edinburgh	7
		31 Stirling Banking Company, Stirling . .	6
		32 Thistle Bank, Glasgow . . .	6

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.] As much uncertainty yet prevails, not only with regard to the proportion of the new imperial standard measures to each other and to the old Scottish and English measures, but also as to the relative proportion of the weights and measures formerly in use in this country, we subjoin a full account of the whole :

Dutch Weight.] The Scots Troy or Dutch weight at an early period was established as the standard weight in Scotland. In the year 1485, an act of parliament ordains "the stane to contene fifteen pound Treis, ilk Treis pound to contene sextene ounce." In 1587, the stane was ordained to consist of 16 Treis pounds, each pound containing 16 ounces, and these divisions have continued to be observed since that time. The pound is very nearly equal to the commercial pound of Amsterdam, from which circumstance it probably received the name of *Dutch Weight*, by which it is now generally known. The custody of the standard Dutch pound was of old committed to the burgh of Lanark. It contains 7008.9406 imperial standard grains. Its proportion to the Troy pound is as 7621.8 to 5760; to the Aretredupe pound as 7621.8 to 7000; and to the imperial pound as 1.0569628 to one. Although the Dutch weight was prohibited from being used by the 17th article of the act of Union, it was in almost universal use, until the recent adoption of the imperial standard, for weighing old iron, meal, in some places butcher meat, pewter, lead, and some other articles.

Troy Weight.] Troy weight is the most ancient of the weights used in Scotland. It appears to have been a conventional measure of weight, but never at any time recognised as a legal standard. An act, passed in 1618, ordains, "and that weight, called of old the *Troy weight*, to be utterly abolished and discharged, and never hereafter to be received nor used." It was also prohibited, with other Scots weights and measures, by the 17th article of the act of Union. It was still, however, used for weighing various commodities, but in a very irregular manner, for the pound varied in different places, and for different purposes, from 20 to 28 Dutch ounces; even, in the same place, it sometimes varied according to the articles it was employed to weigh. In all tables of Scots weights, the Troy pound is stated to contain 20 Dutch ounces. Its proportion therefore to the Dutch pound was as 5 to 4; and containing 9022.67 imperial grains; its proportion to the imperial pound is as 1.37467 to one.

Lineal Measure.] The Scots ell was established by King David I., and the *second* or standard of the measure, was committed to the custody of the burgh of Edinburgh. By an act of parliament in 1285, the ell was ordained to be divided into 37 inches; and by a subsequent act in 1663, that the foot be 12 of these inches. The Scots foot and inch have, for a long period, been out of use, and the English substituted as the standard of these denominations. The ell, although prohibited by the 17th article of the act of Union, continued for many years after to be used for the measurement of some coarse commodities; but was long almost entirely superseded by the English yard as a lineal measure, though it still formed the foundation of the Scottish superficial measure of land. At the temperature of 60° the Scottish ell contains 37.0599 inches.

Superficial Measure.] The Scottish chain employed for the measurement of land is 24 ells in length, which are equal to 74.4 English feet old measure, and 74.1196 imperial feet. The divisional parts of the Scottish acre differ from those of the English acre; but the method of measuring both by chains is the same, and 10 squares of either chain is an acre. The proportion of the Scottish acre to the English was as the square of 74.4 to the square of 66, or as 5535.36 to 4356. Thus by a pretty close approximation, 48 Scottish acres might have been considered equal to 61 English acres. The Scottish acre is to the imperial one as 1.26118345 to one.

Liquid Measure.] The liquid measures of Scotland appear to have undergone no alteration since the reign of James I., or perhaps a period considerably earlier until the passing of the late act. All of the Scottish statutes ordain the "water met" to continue as of old, and uniformly refer to the *first* jug of Stirling as the standard, "quhilk was given by the ordinances of the three estates, Schir John Forrester that time beand chamberlaine into the burgh of Stirling, as for the standart, they to remane universal throuthout the realme." In the year 1617 a parliamentary commission was appointed to examine the different weights and measures, and reduce them to a uniform standard, who found "that the pinte stowpe committed to the keeping of the burgh of Stirling containeth the weight of three pounds seven ounces of French Troy weight clear running water of the Water of Leith." The Stirling pint jug, when filled with distilled water at the temperature of 62°, and when the barometer is at 30 inches, contains 26306.938 grains. The Scottish gallon of 8 Scottish pints, as raised from the ascertained capacity of the standard Stirling pint jug, contains 210455.856 imperial standard grains of distilled water, at the temperature of 62°, the barometer being at 30 inches; and consequently the proportion of the Scottish gallon to the imperial standard gallon is as 3.0065122 to one; and therefore, to convert Scottish gallons into imperial gallons, the Scottish gallons should be multiplied by 3.0065122. The English wine gallon contains 231 cubic inches, and the proportion of the English wine gallon to the imperial standard gallon, is as 0.8331109 to one; consequently, to convert English wine gallons into imperial standard gallons, the number of English wine gallons should be multiplied by 0.8331109.

In the Lowlands of Scotland previous to the late act, the English gallons and its parts were generally used for all kinds of spirituous liquors; but the Scottish pint was used as the measure for beer, honey, milk, small fruit, and some other articles.

Dry Measure.] The Scottish dry measures have frequently been the subject of legislation from 1495 downwards; and the firiot or standard of the measure, which was committed to the custody of the burgh of Linlithgow, has been altered at different times, and its contents ascertained and declared by the pint jug of Stirling, and by lineal measurement. In 1617, a commission was appointed with parliamentary powers, "to advise together and to appoint and determine upon the most convenient means how measures and weights might be reduced to conformity." These commissioners cited the Magistrates of Linlithgow, the custodiers of the firiot, who produced the firiot, with the jug used in measuring it, and made oath to their identity. The commissioners, after verifying the jug by comparing its contents with that of the pint jug of Stirling "they caused presentlie all the firiot with water, which being full they found that the same contained twenty one pints and one mitchkin just sterline jug and measure," which firiot they ordain to be the just and only firiot to be used in time coming for metting of wheat, rye, beans, pease meal, white salt, and such other stuff and victual as has been in use to be measured by stralk mett. The dimensions of each firiot they ordained to be nineteen and one-sixth inches diameter, and seven and one-third inches deep. The statute gives particular directions for the construction of these two firiot, and ordains exact copies to be deposited, two in Dumbarton castle, and two in Edinburgh castle. And magistrates of royal burghs, bailies of burrows, and justices of the peace in all places where markets were held, or grain bought and sold, were ordained to provide themselves with copies of them, properly branded and sealed with the Linlithgow stamp. No alteration was made since that period on the dimensions or content of these two firiot, and they continued until the passing of the late act the standards of the measures of the respective kinds of grain as then fixed and ordained.

Their contents in cubic inches were :

The wheat-firiot, 103.404x21½ = 2197.335

The barley-firiot, 103.404x31 = 3206.594

By the recent statute (5th Geo. IV. chap. 74.) the bushel contains 8 gallons, each gallon containing 10 lbs. avoirdupois, or 70,000 grains of distilled water, under certain circumstances. The bushel therefore contains 560,000 grains of distilled water, which is equal to 2215.192 cubic inches. The proportions therefore of the Linlithgow firiotics to the imperial standard bushels are—

The wheat-firiot as 2197.335 to 2215.192

The barley-firiot as 3206.594 to 2215.192

As these comparative numbers cannot be reduced to lower terms without fractions, an approximate proportion may be made sufficiently accurate for practical purposes, by assuming 1 as the content of the imperial bushel, compared to which the content of the wheat-firiot is as 0.998255 nearly, and the content of the barley-firiot 1.453794. Four of each of those wheat and barley-firiotics make a boll; 16 bolls a chaldre; and each of those firiotics is divided into 4 pecks, and the peck into a lippie. Wheat, pease, and beans, are sold by the wheat-firiot, and oats and barley by the barley-firiot.

CHAP. V.—POPULATION TABLES—INHABITANTS—MANNERS—AND CUSTOMS.

THE following Tables exhibit a comprehensive view of the most important and curious facts relative to the population statistics of Scotland.—

I.—SUMMARY OF POPULATION SINCE THE YEAR 1700.

Years.	Population.	Years.	Population.	Years.	Population.
1700	1,048,000	1750	1,403,000	1790	1,567,000
1710	1,270,000	1760	1,383,000	1801	1,640,000
1720	1,380,000	1770	1,436,000	1811	1,865,000
1730	1,500,000	1780	1,458,000	1821	2,008,000
1740	1,522,000	1785	1,475,000	1831	2,365,807

II.—SUMMARY OF PERSONS IN SCOTLAND, IN THE YEARS 1811, 1821, AND 1831.

SHIRES.	811.			1821.			1831.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Aberdeen	60159	74916	135075	72393	83904	156297	62582	95069	157651
Argyle	40275	44910	85185	47776	49541	97316	30059	51395	81455
Ayr	48696	55448	104144	61077	66222	127299	69717	74336	144053
Banff	16463	20303	36766	20129	23368	43497	20743	25861	46604
Berwick	14466	16313	30779	15725	17409	33134	16339	17999	34338
Bute	5545	6486	12031	6474	7321	13795	2406	2855	5261
Caithness	1068	12611	13679	14198	14048	28246	16339	18179	34518
Clackmannan	5715	6245	11960	6356	6007	12363	7036	7634	14670
Dumbarton	11369	12880	24249	13056	14871	27927	16331	16990	33321
Dumfries	28347	33613	61960	33582	37308	70890	24939	28944	53883
Edinburgh	66004	83003	149007	87750	108755	196505	119031	119031	238062
Elgin	12401	15707	28108	14892	16870	31762	15779	18438	34217
Fife	45998	56304	102302	56540	61016	117556	60780	69050	129830
Forfar	48151	59113	107264	59071	61360	120431	45039	74513	119552
Glasgow	14292	16638	30930	31164	16998	48162	17397	18748	36145
Inverness	36723	46914	83637	42804	47853	90657	44510	50427	94937
Kilmarnock	12280	14269	26549	13540	15578	29118	15616	16415	32031
Kirkcaldy	3466	3779	7245	3660	4108	7768	4519	4553	9072
Kirkcubright	15739	17896	33635	18506	20397	38903	19022	21621	40643
Leamington	68088	103064	171152	115985	139002	254987	180230	160290	340520
Linlithgow	8874	10877	19751	10703	11983	22686	14805	12896	27701
Naïr	2539	4791	7330	4082	4894	8976	4607	5047	9654
Orkney and Shetland	20151	20008	40159	20070	20054	40124	20045	20045	40090
Perth	4646	5089	9735	4073	5073	9146	5344	5626	10970
Perth	64054	71059	135113	66038	73017	139055	68655	74390	143045
Renfrew	41900	50636	92536	51178	60097	111275	61154	72899	134053
Ross and Cromarty	27640	33213	60853	32394	38904	71298	34027	39023	73050
Stirling	17113	20117	37230	19409	21484	40893	20761	22908	43669
Stirling	7750	9139	16889	9205	10492	19697	9394	10492	19886
Sutherland	37748	30429	68177	31718	33666	65384	35983	37539	73522
Wigan	10488	13141	23629	11036	12758	23794	12060	13468	25528
Wigan	12305	14686	26991	15837	17408	33245	17679	19180	36859
Totals	886191	979497	1865688	983558	1100004	2083562	1115132	1250675	2365807

III.—GENERAL TABLE.

The following Table presents the reader at one view with the extent, subdivision, and state of each county generally, in 1821,—the number of houses inhabited, uninhabited, and in the course of being built,—the number of families which inhabited them,—and the divisions into which these families may be classed, as agriculturists, mechanics, &c. Such statements, it is true, can hardly be more than approximations to truth, and they are subject, like every thing else, to the influence of time; but it is from this very circumstance they derive their principal importance. The real rent of several parishes has considerably increased since the statistical accounts were drawn up.

SHIRES.	HOUSES.				OCCUPATIONS.				EXTENT, &c.				RENT.	
	Inhabited.	By how many families occupied.	Buildings.	Uninhabited.	Families chiefly employed in Agriculture.	Families chiefly employed in Trade, Manufacture, or Handicraft.	All other families not comprised in the two preceding classes.	Length in miles.	Breadth in miles.	No. of Royal Burghs.	No. of Parishes.	Valued Scots.		
												£	s. d.	
Aberdeen	87579	35701	186	996	15775	16029	5897	90	46	3	85	255,688	8	11
Argyle	16309	18309	96	1473	8899	5168	2852	111	45	2	49	149,505	10	9
Ayr	17842	26945	87	406	6807	15008	5190	65	56	2	47	191,607	0	7
Banff	8971	9885	120	210	4150	2959	2796	56	16	2	24	79,900	0	0
Berwick	3603	7165	42	276	3354	1965	1908	54	19	1	32	178,365	7	9
Bute	2005	2855	17	30	1314	750	811	18	44	1	5	15,092	13	8
Caithness	5519	5944	54	39	3052	2188	704	55	22	1	10	57,286	2	10
Clackmannan	2145	2881	12	62	154	1418	1029	9	8	1	4	26,482	10	10
Dumfries	12248	14458	18	78	1168	2694	1571	40	25	1	14	35,597	19	0
Dumfriesshire	12248	14458	85	255	4540	4706	5412	60	50	4	42	158,627	10	0
Edinburgh	19077	40469	209	1165	4830	18700	16939	30	18	1	31	191,054	3	9
Elgin	6668	7587	118	162	9676	2550	2521	42	20	2	18	65,603	0	5
Fife	18044	25749	105	727	5660	13748	6741	60	18	15	63	262,584	7	5
Forfar	16812	26718	113	576	5114	15348	6256	48	42	5	53	171,636	0	0
Galloway	6250	7934	14	579	5009	2947	1978	25	14	5	24	168,878	5	10
Inverness	17055	18328	85	415	10715	8157	5669	92	50	1	31	75,188	9	0
Kilcannine	2994	6685	50	215	3025	2501	1559	50	20	1	19	74,921	1	4
Kinross	1419	1827	11	54	446	755	646	10	10	1	4	30,192	11	2
Kirkcudbright	6441	7912	57	190	3017	2258	2627	45	30	2	28	114,571	19	5
Leith	47016	54497	225	2413	4883	25776	16838	50	36	5	41	162,118	16	11
Linlithgow	2502	4965	15	96	1224	1817	1924	20	11	2	13	74,951	19	0
Nairn	2012	3131	15	54	799	429	903	17	10	1	4	15,163	10	10
Orkney & Shetland	9175	10485	58	94	6004	1594	2355	56	10	1	29	56,551	9	1
Peebles	1750	1962	9	61	857	661	474	36	10	1	16	51,537	3	10
Perth	20718	50970	113	960	7774	12525	10675	27	68	2	76	339,418	5	8
Renfrew	10490	23977	55	546	2725	15780	5472	28	17	1	17	58,076	13	2
Ross and Cromarty	13638	14506	146	547	352	7947	3556	80	80	3	35	87,538	0	11
Southburgh	6287	8629	37	212	3615	3892	2904	50	30	1	31	315,594	11	6
Selkirk	1091	1372	1	35	421	409	542	20	10	1	92	80,307	15	6
Stirling	8984	13753	66	338	2600	6641	4492	36	12	1	24	108,818	8	9
Southland	4454	4824	60	81	3562	642	818	89	40	1	13	26,193	9	9
Wigtown	5810	6774	69	150	3525	2089	1160	30	12	3	17	67,246	17	6
Total	341474	447960	2405	12657	130699	190284	126997					5,802,574	10	5

From the foregoing tables it appears, that for more than a century, the population of Scotland has been gradually augmenting, and that too by an almost uniformly regular process. The earlier periods, it is true, were not taken by actual enumeration, but from an examination of the registers of births and burials; yet, from the regular and steady habits of the inhabitants—who at that time were but in a very small degree intermixed with strangers—it appears probable that their numbers might thus be obtained with very considerable accuracy. The vulgar mind is not easily made to comprehend the subtleties of political economy, and will not soon be brought to believe that general enrolments are of any utility; but although in some instances the object of a census has been defeated through ignorance, such cases must have been very rare, and there is no reasonable ground to doubt that the numbers in the preceding tables are pretty near the truth. The century that had just closed when these tables commence, had been one peculiarly calamitous for Scotland. The succession of James

in the commencement of it to the throne of England, robbed her at once of the presence of her king, and a permanently resident nobility; and three reigns, marked only by tyrannical misrule and outrageous bigotry, could not fail to injure, in a very material degree, her narrow resources, and greatly straiten her population. The date of these tables may be taken as a new era in the history of Scotland. She had just been restored to the free exercise of her religion, and to the benefit of wholesomely administered laws; and the union of the two kingdoms admitted her at once to a participation in many commercial advantages she had not hitherto enjoyed.

Two unfortunate attempts indeed to restore the exiled family to the throne may reasonably be supposed to have impeded her progress during the first half of this period; but the latter half has been such as to have few parallels in the history of nations. In the course of the last fifty years many portions of Scotland have been rendered doubly productive; manufactures have increased a hundred fold; the people have become in a very high degree better clothed and fed, and they are gathered into condensed and therefore powerful masses; her revenue has risen from £160,000 in 1707 to £4,000,000; and we have no hesitation to affirm, that, compared with the resources of the country, the population of Scotland is not greater than it was five hundred years ago. There is indeed one feature in the present situation of Scotland on which we cannot dwell with such unmingled satisfaction, we allude to the state of Parliamentary representation, which, notwithstanding the great influx of wealth, the increase of inhabitants, and general diffusion of knowledge, themes upon which political speculators dwell with so much delight, remains as it was fixed 123 years ago! Glasgow with her 200,000 citizens has just as much representation in Parliament as the now decayed burgh of Rutherglen, or Renfrew, and no more; Edinburgh, the metropolis of the kingdom, has only one representative in the national senate, while an English hamlet of six old houses sends two representatives to the same assembly! The whole kingdom sends 45 members to parliament; a single county in England, namely Cornwall, sends 44! Nor is this all: all of the few representatives Scotland possesses are not to be regarded as the representatives of national feeling and the guardians of national interests. Of the two millions and a half of population, not above 3000 individuals possess the legal right of voting for their representatives; and even of this handful nearly one half are false, nominal, and fictitious voters! We have no inclination to enter upon politics, nor though we had, is this the fittest place for discussing them; but we do think the fact just alluded to such a one as must strike every reflecting person with astonishment.

Character of the Inhabitants.] The Scots are commonly divided into two classes: viz. the *Highlanders* and *Lowlanders*,—the former occupying the northern and mountainous provinces, and the latter the southern districts. These classes differ from each other in language, manners, and dress. In their persons, the Scots—notwithstanding their extensive admixture with English and Irish blood—still display somewhat of those features which foreigners used to remark as national characteristics: an athletic bony frame,—a hard weather-beaten countenance, indicating cool prudence and cautious circumspection,—and broad and high cheek-bones. Nor are the sources of this peculiarity of character and conformation difficult to be discovered. Exposure to a climate rather severe, with modes of living that may be styled spare rather than temperate, give health and vigour to the body; while an early moral and strictly religious education

imparts to the mental powers shrewdness, solidity, and strength. In the case of the highland and pastoral Scot, daily and severe toil,—the perpetual presence of scenery calculated to make a deep and permanent impression on the feelings,—the broad expanse of ocean, indented by rocky promontories, or studded with islands,—the gloomy glen for ever re-echoing the roar of innumerable streams poured from the craggy mountains, whose towering heads hide themselves for a great part of the year amid the clouds,—the rapid descent of thick vapours,—and the darkness of conflicting tempests,—give existence to that daring and sublime, though sombre and romantic cast of thought which so remarkably distinguishes Scotsmen in every quarter of the world. In manufacturing districts, however, this peculiarity of character, as its exciting causes are wanting, cannot be so readily discovered. Between the educated and higher classes of Scotland and England, difference of character is perhaps scarcely perceptible; and where it is, even Scottish partiality must admit that the advantage is probably on the side of the English; but between the peasantry of the two countries there can scarcely be a comparison instituted. The unsophisticated Scottish peasant displays a shrewdness of remark, a sagacity of conjecture, a cool and calculating foresight, and possesses a strength of moral principle, with a depth and a fervour of piety, which exalt him above those of his own rank in any other country. That the peasantry of Scotland possess a greater portion of natural taste and information than their English brethren is considered paradoxical on the other side of the Tweed. But an intelligent writer, himself a native of England, confesses the fact, and remarks: "Were evidence wanting to establish the fact, a Scottish peasant would exclaim, where are your ballads and songs, the beauteous fugitives of neglected or unknown rustic bards? Where are your relics of poetic devotion, with which every Scotsman's heart is filled,—the plaint of despair,—the uplifting rapture of love,—or the heart-warming lament of domestic misfortune? With us they live; with you they have never existed, or have perished."

To ascribe this superiority on the part of the Scottish peasant to any thing in the soil or climate, would be absurd and ridiculous in the highest degree. Genius and talent are the peculiar products of no particular clime. They may be modified by physical, but for their successful development, depend wholly upon moral causes. The first mental exertion of a Scottish peasant usually is committing to memory the Assembly's catechism; and the first original effort of his powers is made, in acknowledging his dependance upon, and soliciting the mercy of his Creator. By the time he has reached the age of ten years, he has by heart—as it is called—the whole catechism, and a large portion of the metrical version of the Psalms, and is pretty well versed in the Bible. The practice of family-worship, which is observed in every well-regulated family twice a-day, daily increases his acquaintance with the Scriptures; and his powers of conception and of expression are thus too daily gaining strength. His sabbaths are wholly devoted to study and devotion. Lectures, practical, critical, and explanatory, generally occupy the forenoon; and sermons, frequently systematic and abstruse, are delivered on the afternoon of every Sabbath-day; and by the time he arrives at the prime of life, to the "big ha' Bible ance his father's pride," and the Westminster Confession of Faith, he has often added Brown's Self-Interpreting Bible, or Henry's, or Haweis' Commentary, Brown's Dictionary of the Bible, Josephus' Whole Works,

Rollin's *Ancient History*, Mosheim's *Ecclesiastical History*, Boston's *Fourfold State*, and portions of the works of Dr Owen and Jonathan Edwards, &c. &c. besides the *History*, civil and religious, of his own country. When all this is taken into consideration, the intelligence of the genuine Scottish peasant will cease to excite astonishment.

The Scots have been celebrated for their taste in music; and in song, particularly of the pastoral and plaintive kind, they are unrivalled. The origin of their national airs has been the subject of frequent inquiry, and is still involved in much obscurity. By some they have been attributed to James I., by others to the unfortunate David Rizzio; and by a third party, with much more probability, to the general talent and taste of the people. One thing is certain, that if not produced by the taste and genius of the people, by these alone they have been preserved; as among them, and comparatively the rudest part of them, alone, are they to be found in their native purity and simplicity. Indeed they are no sooner subjected to the standard of science, and *improved* by art, than their peculiar character is lost. What they gain in regularity and refinement they lose in pathos and power over the heart.

Attachment to his native soil, has been considered, and perhaps not without reason, as peculiarly characteristic of a Scotsman; although, considering the extent of her population, perhaps no country sends forth a greater number of emigrants than Scotland. Many of these, however, it may be observed, emigrate purely from the strength of this principle: A few years of separation are endured to purchase the delight of closing life happily and independently amid the scenes of infancy and youth. A Park, burying himself amid the arid wastes of central Africa,—a Leyden encountering the pestiferous swamps of Batavia,—a Clapperton braving the burning sun of Soudan, are striking examples of this. They, and many others of their countrymen who have fallen victims to the ardour of enterprise, seem always to have cherished amid their toils and dangers the most enthusiastic recollection of the woods and streams and vales of their native land, and to have looked forward with delightful anticipation to the arrival of that hour which should restore them to the endearments of home and their fatherland. Even the poor emigrants who have been forced to exile themselves from their native Scotland, still carry with them their national feelings and customs, and preserve the remembrance of their native woods and streams and mountains in the names which they bestow upon the scenery of their new abodes beyond the wide rolling Atlantic. Fidelity to one another, and sympathy with the unfortunate, form a striking and most amiable feature in the Scottish character. Of the exercise of these virtues the history of the country affords many instances. In latter times, particularly in the affair generally styled the Porteous' mob, and the case of the Pretender, the inquirer will find striking examples of these national characteristics.

In the mechanical arts, generally speaking, Scotsmen are considerably behind their southern brethren, particularly in more remote parts of the country. Those divisions of labour which are necessary for the perfecting of mechanical arts are generally unknown. The various manipulations in an art are more frequently performed by one individual, a circumstance which, though it does not advance the art, certainly improves the individual, giving to his mind a power and a versatility which it might not otherwise acquire. Hence it is that we often find more common sense, or

in other words, more good sense, in the native of a remote part of the kingdom, than in one of the same rank who has constantly resided in a wealthier and more civilized district.

But though the above be the state of Scotland generally, in the highlands manners and customs are considerably different. There the feudal system longer maintained its ground, and many of its consequences are still visible. There, under the fostering shadow of local partialities, and the cupidity and cruelty of many of the great proprietors, ignorance and superstition long resisted the efforts of the enlightened and the benevolent, and the progress of knowledge and improvement. This stigma, however, is nearly wiped away. The highland proprietors have begun to show a laudable attention to the improvement of their countrymen, and their exertions have been warmly seconded by the general mass of the community throughout the island, who, no longer divided in interest and feeling from their Gaelic brethren, manifest a lively concern in the welfare and improvement of their rude but gallant countrymen. The natural qualities of the highlander's understanding are not inferior to those of his lowland neighbour, but they have not been improved in an equal degree. He is therefore more strongly attached to the prejudices and peculiarities of his forefathers; he is warmer in his attachments, because his affections are expanded only in a narrow circle; he is more impetuous than prudent, because seldom subjected to restraint; if he occasionally betrays more self-conceit, it is because he less frequently has an opportunity of comparing himself with those who have made greater attainments.

Manners and Customs.] Of peculiar customs, the inhabitants of the low country of Scotland, as distinguished from Britain generally, have few. In their dress, their food, their houses, their furniture, their occupations, and even in their modes of thinking, they have ever since the Union been gradually approximating toward those of the people of England. The chief distinction originates in the difference of religion; that of Scotland being Presbyterianism, that of England Episcopacy. This occasions a difference in the mode of conducting baptisms, marriages, and funerals. But with these, and one or two other trifling exceptions, a close similarity of manners has been produced since the union of the two kingdoms, by the frequent intercourse between the two nations, as well as by a unity of interests and pursuits. Previous to that event, however, the Scots followed the customs of the French, and even of the Germans, much more closely than those of the English.¹²

¹² Of this fact there are many proofs; and the following account given by an Englishman, towards the end of the 16th century, puts it in a clear light: "Myself," says the gentleman, who was a messenger from the border or frontier, "was at a knight's house, who had many servants to attend him, that brought in his meat, with their heads covered with blue caps, the table being more than half furnished with great platters of porridge, each having a little piece of sodden meat; and, when the table was served, the servants sat down with us; but the upper mess, instead of porridge, had a pullet, with some prunes in the broth: and I observed no art of cookery, or furniture of household stuff, but rather a rude neglect of both, though myself and my companions, sent from the governor of Berwick, about bordering affairs, were entertained after their best manner. The Scots living then in factions, used to keep many followers, and so consumed their revenue, of victuals, living in some want of money. They vulgarly eat hearty cakes of oats, but in cities have also wheaten bread, which, for the most part, was bought by courtiers, gentlemen, and the best sort of citizens. They drink pure wines, not with sugar, as the English; yet, at feasts, they put comfits in the wines, after the French manner; but they had not our vintners' fraud to mix their wines. I did never see nor hear that they had any public inns with signs hanging out; but the better sort of citizens brew ale, their usual drink (which will distemper a stranger's body); and the same citizens will entertain passengers upon acquaintance or entreaty. Their bedsteads were then like cupboards in the wall, with doors to be opened and shut at pleasure, so as we

Among the Scottish amusements, the golf, and what is called *curling*, are reckoned peculiar. The quoits are common in both parts of the island. Cricket is not much known in Scotland, but is more frequently seen than formerly. The other amusements are such as are common in every part of Europe: cards, chess, backgammon, draughts, concerts, assemblies, and theatrical amusements.

These remarks concerning the similarities of manners must be understood to be confined to the low country: the highlanders have a language, a dress, and many customs peculiar to themselves. The highland dress consists of a short coat, a vest, a short kind of petticoat reaching scarcely so low as the knee, and known by the name of a *philabeg* or *kilt*, with short hose, leaving the knees entirely uncovered. The head is covered with a bonnet totally different in its appearance from the broad flat lowland bonnet; it is stiffened so as to stand upright on the head, and has no slight resemblance to a hat without a brim. The coat, the vest, the *kilt*, and the hose, are usually of *tartan*,—a kind of chequered stuff of various colours, often not inelegant. Instead of the *kilt*, is sometimes substituted the *belled plaid*, which is a large piece of *tartan*, part of it fastened round the body in the form of a philabeg, and part tucked up to one of the shoulders, having, on the whole, a graceful appearance, and exhibiting a strong resemblance to the dress of the ancient Romans. The *sprochan* or ponch, formed generally of some kind of fur, decorated with tassels and various other ornaments, and fastened round the middle of the body, so as to hang down before, is esteemed an essential part of the highland garb. To this, before the highlanders were disarmed, were added a broad sword, with a large basket handle, a dirk, or short dagger, a knife and fork in the same sheath with the dirk, and in the girdle a pistol, often much ornamented.

The music of the highlanders is in a great measure peculiar; their favourite instrument, the bagpipe, though enthusiastically admired by the

climbed up to our beds. They used but one sheet, open at the sides and top, but close at the feet, and so doubled.—When passengers go to bed, their custom was to present them with a sleeping cup of wine at parting. The country people and merchants used to drink largely, the gentlemen somewhat more sparingly; yet, as very courtiers, by night meetings, and entertaining any stranger, used to drink healths not without excess; and, to speak truth without offence, the excess of drinking was then far greater in general among the Scots than the English. Myself being at the court, invited by some gentlemen to supper, and being forewarned to fear their excess, would not promise to sup with them, but upon condition that my inviter would be my protection from large drinking, which I was many times forced to invoke, being courteously entertained and much provoked to carousing; and so for that time avoided any great intemperance. Remembering this, and having since observed, in my conversation at the English court, with the Scots of the better sort, that they spend great part of the night in drinking not only wine, but even beer; as myself cannot accuse them of any great intemperance, so I cannot altogether free them from the imputation of excess, wherewith the popular voice chargeth them. The husbandmen in Scotland, the servants, and almost all the country, did wear coarse cloth, made at home, of gray or sky colour, and flat blue caps very broad. The merchants in cities were attired in English or French cloth, of pale colour, or mingled black and blue. The gentlemen did wear English cloth or silk, or light stuffs, little or nothing adorned with silk lace, much less with lace of silver or gold; and all followed at this time the French fashion, especially at court. Gentlewomen married, did wear close upper bodices, after the German manner, with large whalebone sleeves after the French manner, short cloaks like the Germans, French hoods, and large falling-bands about their necks. The unmarried of all sorts did go bareheaded, and wear short cloaks, with most close linen sleeves on their arms, like the virgins of Germany. The inferior sort of citizens' wives, and the women of the country, did wear cloaks, made of a coarse stuff, of two or three colours, in checker-work, vulgarly called *pladan*. To conclude, in general, they would not at this time be attired after the English fashion, in any sort; but the men, especially at court, followed the English fashion; and the women, both in court and city, as well in cloaks as naked heads, and close sleeves to the arms, and all other garments, follow the fashion of the women of Germany.

highlanders, is not, unless in very skilful hands, agreeable to the natives of other countries. Dancing is a favourite highland amusement; but is generally performed with more agility than grace.

The houses or rather huts of the highlanders are mean structures of loose stones, generally without either chimney or grate. The fire is made upon the hearth in the middle of the house; the smoke issuing from an aperture in the roof. The ordinary food is coarse and spare, usually consisting of oatmeal variously prepared, milk, and, in the neighbourhood of the sea, fish. A highland funeral continues, in some places, to be preceded by the bagpipe playing a solemn dirge, and is not unfrequently terminated by a scene of wassail and riot.

It may be remarked that the highlanders are daily losing that exclusive attachment to their ancient dress and manners by which they were formerly distinguished. They are rapidly adopting the dress and the customs of the low country; and, in a short time, it is probable the customs of the highlands will be described rather as manners which existed, than as manners still existing in any part of the island.

CHAP. VI.—CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT—COURTS—REVENUE.

Constitution and Government.] The ancient constitution and government of Scotland has been highly applauded, as excellently adapted for the preservation of civil liberty; and it is certain that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that the constitution provided many checks to prevent his assuming or exercising a despotic authority.—But the Scotch constitution was too much of the aristocratic kind to secure the liberties of the common people; for, though the monarch's power was sufficiently restrained, the nobles, chieftains, and great land proprietors had it too much in their power to tyrannize over and oppress their tenants, and the lower ranks of the people. It would far exceed our limits to enter minutely into an account of the laws of Scotland; we shall therefore only take notice of those peculiarities in which they differ from those of the sister kingdom, with a short account of the ancient constitution. The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath: "In the name of Christ, I promise these three things to the Christian people, my subjects: first, that I shall give order, and employ my force and assistance, that the church of God and the Christian people may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government: secondly, I shall prohibit and hinder all persons, of whatever degree, from violence and injustice; thirdly, in all judgments I shall follow the prescriptions of justice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may shew mercy unto me, and unto you." By the constitution of Scotland, the parliament being the king's court baron, or *curia regis*, he could summon all his immediate tenants to attend him there. In those remote times, service in parliament was not considered as a profitable privilege, but as a burthensome duty; and in the beginning of the 15th century, the system of representation was introduced for the ease and benefit of the vassals of the crown. Yet, until near the end of the 16th century, every freeholder, or tenant of the crown, was entitled to vote at elections, however small his property might be, which sufficiently proves the ancient popularity and freedom of the institution. In the reign of James the Sixth

of Scotland and First of England, (a monarch who was not distinguished by too great an attachment to the liberty of mankind,) the right of voting was first restricted to freeholders possessing lands of forty shillings of what was called *old extent*; that is, of lands which were so rated in the cess or county books about the end of the 13th or beginning of the 14th century. This was a great and fatal blow to popular election; for though forty shillings was made, as in England, the nominal standard of a vote, yet by carrying it back to a rate or valuation made three hundred years before, the value of money having considerably fallen, the extent of the qualification required was very much raised. And this circumstance points out the efficient cause of the enormous difference which subsists between England and Scotland with regard to freedom and popularity of election in the counties. In England, the qualification has been allowed to keep pace with the decreasing value of money, and has therefore been extended to greater numbers of electors. In Scotland, by the limitations to the rates and valuations of very remote periods, the right of voting has been confined to possessors of very considerable estates, and the number of electors has been very much diminished. The parliament of Scotland, then, anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land, however small, of the crown, by military service. This parliament appointed the time of its own meetings and adjournments, and committees to superintend the administration during the intervals, or while parliament was not sitting. Its powers were not only deliberative, but also executive; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, appointed the treasurers of the exchequer, and examined all the accounts; it had the nomination of the commanders, and the calling out of the armies; ambassadors to other States were commissioned by the parliament; the judges and courts of judicature were appointed by parliament, as well as the officers of state and privy counsellors; parliament could alienate the regal demesne, and restrain grants from the crown; it also assumed the right of granting pardons to criminals. The king had no *veto* in the proceedings of parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any important business, without the advice and concurrence of that assembly. He was not even entrusted with the executive part of the government, and the parliament, so late as the reign of James IV. by an act still extant, pointed out to that monarch his duty, as the *first servant* of his people. In short, the constitution of Scotland was rather aristocratical than a limited monarchy. The abuse of power by the lords and great landholders gave the monarch a very considerable interest amongst the burghesses and lower ranks; and a king who had address to retain the affections of the people, was generally able to humble the most powerful aristocratical faction; but when, on the other hand, a prince appeared to disregard the authority of parliament, and did not seek after popularity, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithstanding the aristocratical power of parliament, found means to weaken or elude its force; and in this they were zealously assisted by the clergy, whose revenues were immense, and who were always jealous of the power of the nobility. This was done by establishing a select body of members, who were called '*the lords of the articles*,' chosen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burghesses. The bishops chose eight peers, and the nobility elected eight bishops; these sixteen nominated jointly eight barons, or knights of the shires, and eight commissioners of royal burghs, and to all these were added eight great officers of state, the lord chancellor being president of

the whole. Their business was to prepare all questions, bills, and other matters to be brought before parliament; so that, in fact, though the king possess no *veto*, yet, by means of the clergy, and the places in his gift, he often commanded the lords of the articles, and no proposition could be laid before parliament which required his negative. This institution seems to have been introduced by stealth, and never was thoroughly organized; and the best informed writers on law are not agreed upon the time when it originated. The Scots, however, never lost sight of their original principles; and though Charles I. wanted to form the lords of the articles into mere machines for his own purposes, he found it no longer practicable; and the melancholy consequences are well known. At the Revolution, they gave a fresh instance how well they understood the principles of civil liberty, by omitting all disputes about *abdication*, and the like terms; and declared at once that king James had forfeited his title to the British crown. Scotland, when a separate kingdom, cannot be said to have had any peers, in the English acceptation of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no distinct House, but sat in the same room with the knights and burgesses, who had the same deliberate and decisive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might sit on a lord's jury in matters of life and death; nor was it necessary for the jury to be unanimous in their verdict. Great uncertainty occurs in Scottish history, in confounding *parliaments* and *conventions*; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws, as well as impose taxes; conventions or assemblies of the states could only deliberate on the plans of taxation.

Officers of State.] Before the Union there were four great officers of state—the lord high chancellor, the high treasurer, the privy seal and secretary; and four lesser officers,—the lord clerk register, lord advocate, treasurer, depute, and justice clerk; all these officers, in virtue of their offices, sat in the Scottish parliament. Since the Union, the lords privy seal, register, advocate, and justice clerk only are retained, and the solicitor-general has been added. These offices bear a considerable resemblance to those of England of the same name; the lord advocate's and solicitor general's offices being similar to those of the attorney general and solicitor of England. The great officers of the crown were,—the lords high chamberlain, constable, admiral, and marshal, the royal standard-bearer, the lord justice general, and the lord chief baron of the exchequer. Besides these, there were many other offices, both of crown and state, which are now extinct, or too inconsiderable to be noticed here. The office of lyon king at arms, the *rex fecialium*, or grand herald of Scotland, is still in being: it was formerly an office of great splendour and importance, as the science of heraldry was preserved in greater purity in Scotland than in any other nation. He was crowned in parliament with a golden circle, and his authority might be carried into execution by the civil law. The privy council of Scotland, previous to the Revolution, assumed inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now sunk in the parliament and privy council of Great Britain. The form of government in Scotland since the Union has been the same with that of England.

COURTS OF LAW.] The principal courts of law are the following: viz. a civil, a criminal, and a revenue court.

The supreme civil court is the *Court of Session*, also styled the college or court of justice, established in 1532, by James V. after the model of

the French parliament. It was lately composed of 14 judges and a president, before whom all civil causes were tried, and from whose decision there was an appeal to the house of peers. But for the despatch of business this court is now divided into two chambers; the one consisting of 8, and the other of 7 judges.

A *Jury Court* for the trial of civil actions, consisting of 5 commissioners, was established in 1815. Questions come before this court by remit from the court of session. It has been proposed to unite the two courts.

The *Justiciary* or *Criminal Court*, consists of a lord justice-general, a lord justice-clerk, and five commissioners of justiciary, who are also lords of session. In this court, causes are tried by the verdict of a jury. The judges go on circuit to the principal districts of the country, where they hold courts twice in the year. One lord can hold a circuit-court, and the judgments of circuit-courts are not liable to review in the justiciary court. Upon these circuits they possess a civil jurisdiction, by way of appeal, in causes below £12 sterling; and in these they proceed without a jury.

The *Court of Exchequer* is composed of the lord chief-baron, and other 4 barons, who must be either serjeants at law or English barristers, or Scotch advocates of five years standing; and they have the same jurisdiction over the revenue in Scotland as the English barons have over that in England. All may plead before this court who can practise in the courts of Westminster-hall, or in the court of session.

In the High Court of *Admiralty*, there is only one judge, who is the king's lieutenant, and justice-general, upon the seas, and in all ports and harbours. He has a jurisdiction in all maritime causes; and by prescription he has acquired a jurisdiction in mercantile causes not maritime. His decisions are subject to the review of the court of session in civil, and to that of the court of justiciary in criminal cases.

The College or *Faculty of Advocates*, answers to the English inns of court; and, subordinate to them, is a body of inferior lawyers, or attorneys, styled writers to the signet, because they alone can substantiate the writings that pass the signet.

The *Commissary Court* consists of four judges nominated by the crown, and has an original jurisdiction in questions of marriage and divorce, and reviews the decrees of local commissary courts. It sanctions the appointment of executors, and ascertains debts relating to the last illness, and funeral charges, of persons deceased, or obligations arising from testaments, or actions of scandal, and upon all debts which do not exceed £40.

As Scotland is divided into counties, shires, or stewartries, the *sheriff* or steward, the king's lieutenant, enjoys an extensive jurisdiction, civil and criminal. Of old, the sheriff or steward reviewed the decrees of the baron courts within his territories; he mustered the military companies or militia, whose exercises were known by the name of *weapon-shawing*; and the same office is now renewed in the establishment of the militia in Scotland, the officers of which receive their commissions from the *sheriff*, or *lord-lieutenant*—as he is now called—of the county. The office of sheriff was of old hereditary in the great families, but, by an act of parliament in 1748, this and all other offices possessing hereditary jurisdiction, were either dissolved or annexed to the crown; the jurisdiction of the magistrates of royal burghs being preserved entire. The office of sheriff, as far as regards legal matters, is now exercised by a judge, called the *sheriff-depute*, and his *substitute*. The former is appointed by the Crown, and must be a member of the Faculty of Advocates. The sheriff

receives the royal revenues from the collectors within his district, which he pays into the exchequer; he summons juries for the trials before the jury and justiciary courts; he returns, as member of parliament for the county, the person having a majority of suffrages upon the roll of freeholders; he establishes, with the assistance of a jury, the *fiars* or rates to be paid for grain, that ought to be delivered when no precise price is stipulated; he has a civil jurisdiction in all cases, except in a contest for the property of a landed estate; and a criminal one in cases of theft, and other smaller crimes. The decrees of this court are subject to review by the supreme courts of session and justiciary.

The powers of jurisdiction vested in the *magistrates of cities* and of *royal burghs*, are somewhat similar to those of the sheriffs, and are subject to the review of the supreme court. The *Dean of Guild Court* has lost considerably of its former importance; being formerly authorised to decide in all causes between merchants, and between merchant and mariner. Its office at present is, to take care that buildings within the city or burgh are carried on according to law; that encroachments be not made in the public streets; to judge in disputes between conterminous proprietors; to consider the state of buildings, whether they be in a fair condition, or whether they threaten damage to those dwelling in them, or to the neighbourhood, from their ruinous state; and to grant warrant for repairing, pulling down, or rebuilding them, according to the circumstances of the case. The royal burghs of Scotland also form, as it were, a commercial parliament, called the *Convention of Royal Burghs*, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, consisting of a representative from each burgh, to consult upon the good of the whole.

The *Justice of Peace Court* is of no earlier institution than A. D. 1609, and is, in almost every respect, similar to those of England. Generally speaking, justices are to judge in riots and breaches of the peace; appoint constables, regulate highways, bridges, and ferries; they have authority to punish vagrants, and offenders against penal laws; to judge upon transgressions of the game laws, and concerning frauds against the duties of customs and excise, besides various other branches of jurisdiction. There is also a Justice of Peace or *Small Debt Court* held monthly in every town, where causes not exceeding £10 sterling are decided in a summary manner, and at a small expense.¹⁸

Military Establishment.] The military establishment of Scotland consists of a lieutenant-general, three major-generals, and the staff of North Britain, who are under the command of the commander in chief of Britain.

¹⁸ From the above general summary of institutions and civil government of Scotland, it is evident that they were principally the same with those of England. The English allege that the Scots borrowed the contents of the *Regium Majestatem*, their oldest law book, from the work of Glanville, a judge during the reign of Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the contrary, claim the priority, alleging that Glanville's work is copied from the *Regium Majestatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did exist in the laws of England. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland and that of England is remarkable. The English law reports are similar in nature to the Scottish practice, and their acts of *aderunt answer* to the English rules of court; the Scottish wadsets and reversions, to the English mortgages and defeasances; their pointing of goods, and letters of horning are very similar to the English practice in case of outlawry. Many other usages are similar in both kingdoms which prove the similarity of their constitutions. Another similarity may be noticed in the early ages of both kingdoms. In Scotland the monarch held his parliament, and promulgated his edicts seated on a hill, called in Gaelic *Tom'm'hoid*, i. e. *Moot or Mote-hill*, or the hill of meeting; and in England, the Saxon princes issued their laws in what is named *Fule-mote*, a term implying a parliament of the same kind as that of the early Scots.

There are four forts, which, by the articles of Union, are to be kept constantly in repair, viz. Edinburgh, Stirling, Dumbarton, and Blackness; and there are several other forts which are kept in repair, rather as barracks for soldiers, than as objects of military strength, such as Fort George, and Fort William. The militia establishment has been extended to Scotland.

Revenue.] The revenue of Scotland at the Union in 1707, was £110,694; additional taxes were then imposed amounting to £49,306; making a total revenue of £160,000. The hereditary revenue of the crown in Scotland was greatly diminished in the course of last century; so that, in the year 1788, it amounted to no more than £800, owing, it is said, to lavish grants made by the crown, and a neglect in collecting what remained. The produce of the Scotch customs, in the year ending 5th January, 1789, was £250,839; from which was deducted, for debentures, bounties, salaries, and incidents, £171,638. The whole revenue of Scotland, for 1788, was £1,099,148. The expenditure was as follows—Expenses of the crown, £60,342; expenditure of the public, £173,921; bounties, drawbacks, &c., £127,629; public expenses settled by the Union, and by subsequent acts of Parliament, £64,868; cash remitted to the English Exchequer, £628,081; balance remaining for national purposes, £43,307. In 1813 the total revenue was £4,843,229; and the expense of management £639,132; making a total revenue of £4,204,097; or an increase since the Union of £4,044,097. In this year at least $\frac{1}{14}$ th of the revenue raised by Great Britain was drawn from Scotland; whereas, at the time of the Union, the proportion furnished by it was no more than $\frac{1}{14}$ th of the then whole.

Revenue of Royal Burghs.] The following is the annual income of the Royal burghs of Scotland, which send members to parliament, as stated in the appendix to the report of a committee of the house of commons:

Edinburgh	£45,000	Inverness	£1,539
Glasgow	15,000	Jedburgh	571
Aberdeen (no return)	—	Kirkcaldy	500
Arbroath	1,100	Kirkcudbright	1,000
Annan	600	Kilrenny	5
Anstruther (Easter)	65	N. B. There were no returns from the	
Do. (Wester)	1,650	burghs of Clackmannan, Lochmaben,	
Banff	393	Sanquhar, Cullen, Kintore, Inverary,	
North Berwick	120	Rutherglen, Renfrew, Nairn, and Kirk-	
Brechin	250	wall.	
Burntisland	300	Lanark	635
Campbelton	200	Lauder	180
Cupar	800	Linlithgow	500
Dingwall	153	Montrose	1700
Dornock	8	Peebles	740
Dumbarton	858	Perth	6000
Dunfermline	1,500	Pittenweem	300
Dumfries	2,200	Rothsay	168
Dunbar	600	St Andrews	150
Dundee	2,750	Stirling	2320
Dysart	205	Stranraer	150
Elgin	170	Tain	225
Haddington	1,000	Wick	40
Inverury	110	Wigton	256
Inverbervie	50	Whithorn	115
Irvine	1,000		

CHAP. VII.—LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.—EDUCATION.

Language.] The language spoken in the Low country has a considerable resemblance to the English; being, according to the most careful inquirers, a dialect of the Scandinavian, intermixed with many Anglo-Saxon words and idioms, and a few terms introduced from the French during the prevalence of the intercourse so long maintained between France and Scotland. This dialect has maintained its place in the conversation of the common people, but the English is universally understood, and is very generally spoken. Of the modern language of the common people of Scotland, the poems of Ramsay and Burns, but especially the works of the Author of Waverley, afford exquisite specimens.¹⁴

Gaelic is spoken by at least 300,000 of the people. It is almost exclusively the language of the Hebrides and of the western and inland parts of Argyre, Inverness, Ross, and Sutherland. It is also the more prevailing language throughout the other parts of these counties. In Orkney, Zetland, and the coast of Caithness, English is spoken exclusively. The Gaelic language is radically the same with that spoken by the native Irish, and among the mountains of Wales. Like the manners peculiar to the Highlanders, their language is becoming daily less common; and as it contains few original compositions to preserve its purity, it may speedily cease to be generally understood even in the Highlands, notwithstanding the efforts of the Highland Society, the introduction of Gaelic classes into the Highland schools, and the circulation of a well-conducted monthly periodical in the native language. The Lord's prayer is also subjoined in Gaelic.¹⁵

In some of the northern Scottish islands, a dialect prevails, having a strong affinity to that of Norway. In the same places many Norwegian words, as well as customs, are yet retained.

Literature.] If the number of her inhabitants be considered, Scotland has produced a very great proportion of men eminent for their genius and learning. It must at the same time be confessed that by far the greater number of eminent Scotsmen have lived in times comparatively modern. The poems attributed to Ossian, could they be made certainly to appear to belong to the period generally assigned to them, would be a literary curiosity of uncommon value and a proud national trophy; not only the date however, but the authenticity of the poems, has been questioned; and of those who believe them to have existed among the Highlanders, not a few assign them a period so recent, as greatly to diminish their value. The institution at I-còlm-kil, sometimes called Iona, is said to have produced many men much celebrated in their own times; but of them little is now known, and many who have been ranked among Scottish writers, belong to other nations. The *Chronicon Pictorum* is supposed to have been the production of an Irish ecclesiastic, about the beginning of the 11th century. Several other chronicles were written during the following century,

¹⁴ The Lord's prayer in the ancient dialect runs thus: Uor fader quhlk beest i hevin. Hallowit weird thyne nam. Cum thyne kingrik. Be done thine wull as le i hevin ava po yerd. Uor dailie breid gif us thilk day. And forleit us uor skaths, as we forleit tham quba skath us. And leed us na intil temptation. Butan fre us fra evil. Amen.

¹⁵ Ar n-Athair a ta air nèamh, Gu naomhaichear t'ainm. Thigeadh do rìoghachd. Deasair do thoil air an talamh, mar a nìthear air nèamh. Tabhair dhuinn an diugh ar n-aran laitheil. Agus maith dhuinn ar fiacha, amhuil mar a mhaithreas sinne d'ar laicid-fiach. Agus na leig am buaireadh sinn, ach saor sinn o oile: Oir is leatse an rìoghachd, agus an cumhachd, agus a' ghlòir, gu sìorruidh. Amen.

of which the antiquity is now the chief value. Thomas of Ercildoun, commonly known by the name of Thomas the Rhymer, and celebrated for his deep insight into futurity, flourished during the 13th century: Sir Tristram, a metrical romance, lately edited by Sir Walter Scott, is almost all that remains of the writings of this author. Barbour in 1375 published his poem on the actions of Robert I. which shows us that the languages at that time common in England and in Scotland, were little different. The same period was rendered remarkable by Fordun, well-known as one of the earliest authorities in Scottish history. He was followed by Dunbar the poet; and, in the beginning of the 15th century, by Gawin Douglas and David Lindsay. Towards the middle of the 17th century, appeared Drummond, whose poetry is still admired. The end of the preceding century was rendered illustrious by Buchanan, whose history, though in many places fabulous, is justly esteemed for the elegance of its composition, and the classic purity of its Latinity.

The civil tyranny to which Scotland was subjected under the two last *Stuarts*, could not fail to depress her literature. Her patriotic sons had a more difficult and a more important task than the cultivation of literature at that period to perform. Justly might they have been branded with contempt, had they spent their time in polishing rhymes, and rounding periods, when all that is most dear to man, all that was most valuable to themselves or their posterity, with freedom of thought and conscience, were at stake. The Union of the crowns of Scotland and England too, by removing from Scotland the seat of government, was unfavourable to the development of Scottish talent. When increasing commerce brought along with it new wealth, the literature of Scotland partook of the general prosperity. Men of more than common abilities began to appear in every department of the sciences and arts; and the progress of knowledge and of taste since that time has fully kept pace with that of England herself. The literary history of Scotland since the Union must in fact be identified with that of British literature in general, and our remarks in a previous chapter are equally applicable here.

Popular Education.] It has already been remarked, that the common people in Scotland display a greater portion of intelligence than is to be found among the same classes in any other country. To what we have already advanced on this head we may add, the establishment, by law, of a school in every parish, for the purpose of teaching the ordinary branches of education. That the schoolmaster may be able to teach at a rate so low as to be easily afforded by the peasantry, he is allowed a free house, a garden, and a small salary, of which an augmentation, intended to place this useful body of men in a more respectable situation than that which they formerly held, has recently been made. Besides the parochial schools, in almost every parish in the populous parts of the country, private schools are established for the accommodation of such as are at too great a distance from the parish-school. In some of the larger towns, charity schools are likewise supported for the better education of the lower ranks; and highly respectable academies exist where such young men as are intended for the learned professions are qualified for the university. Education is less generally diffused in the Highlands. In 1822, an investigation was undertaken of the state of education there and in the western islands, from which it appeared that half of all the population were unable to read; or in detail, taking all ages above eight years, those who could not read were nearly in the following proportions: In the Hebrides, and other western

parts of Inverness and Ross, 70 in the 100 could not read ; in the remaining parts of Inverness and Ross, in Nairn, the Highlands of Moray, Cromarty, Sutherland, and the inland parts of Caithness, 40 in the 100 ; in Argyle and the Highlands of Perth, 30 in the 100 ; in Orkney and Zetland, 12 in the 100. Above one-third of the whole population were more than 2 miles, and many thousands, more than 5 miles distant from the nearest schools. In the western parts of Inverness and Ross, all the Scriptures found existing were in the proportion of one copy of the Bible for every eight persons above the age of eight years ; and in the other parts of the Highlands and Islands, including Orkney and Zetland, where reading is very general, only one copy for every three persons.

Universities.] The universities of Scotland are four, and differ, in many respects, from the universities of England. The latter contain, each of them, many colleges ; of the former, Glasgow and Edinburgh have each only one college ; Aberdeen and St Andrews have two. In the English universities the meetings are called *terms* ; they continue a short time, and recur several times in the course of a year. In the Scottish universities, the time of meeting is called a *session* ; and of these, each year has only one. In the English universities the students are instructed by tutors who give them lessons in private ; in the Scottish, tuition is performed by lectures delivered by the professors in public. There are other differences in the peculiar modes of teaching, too numerous to be detailed, and too uninteresting to demand attention. In the order of their foundation, the Scottish universities rank as follows : St Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Edinburgh.

1st. The *University of St Andrews* was composed of 3 Colleges ; viz. St Salvator's, founded by bishop Kennedy in 1458—St Leonard's by prior Hepburn in 1512—and St Mary's, or New College, by archbishop Beaton in 1538. The two former were united in 1747. The United College consists of a principal and 8 professors. In the New College there is a principal and 3 other professors. The University has a chancellor, a rector, and dean of faculty.

2d. The *University of Glasgow*, founded in 1450, consists of a chancellor, rector, principal, dean of faculty, and 18 professors.

3d. *Aberdeen University* is composed of two colleges, each of which is styled an University. King's College, or university, founded by bishop Elphinston, in 1497, consists of a chancellor, rector, principal, subprincipal, and 8 professors.—Marischal College, founded in 1593, has a chancellor, rector, principal, and 10 professors.

4th. The *University of Edinburgh*, founded by James VI. in 1581, is composed of a principal and 27 professors. The medical classes of this University are attended by gentlemen from all quarters of the globe ; and the whole number of students usually exceeds 2000.

CHAP. VIII.—RELIGION.

Historical Sketch of the Introduction of Christianity into Scotland.] In a former article we have sketched the religion of the heathen Britons. When, how, and by whom Christianity was introduced into Scotland, is unknown. If we may believe monkish historians, and ancient chroniclers, it was introduced into the northern quarter of our island by one of John the apostle's disciples, who fled hither to avoid the persecution of the

emperor Domitian, but was not publicly professed until towards the close of the second century, when one of the Scottish monarchs, Donald I., and his queen were solemnly baptized. Tertullian, a writer of the 2d century, says, that "before his time Christianity had extended itself to parts of Britain inaccessible to the Roman arms." Now we know that the Romans had, before the time when this author wrote, overrun all England, and carried their arms into the south of Scotland. There is therefore reason to suppose that the gospel had, at this early period, penetrated into the northern parts of Scotland. The persecutions which took place under Aurelian and Dioclesian tended to the propagation of Christianity in Scotland by the emigrations they occasioned from the southern to the more retired northern regions of Britain. About the year 432, St Ninian converted the Roman Britons of Valentia, and founded the monastery of Whitehorn in Galloway; St Kentigern christianized the Strathclyde Britons in the middle and towards the close of the 6th century. But it was to Columba chiefly that the Scots and Picts were indebted for their knowledge of Christianity. Columba was descended of a noble Irish family, and at an early age devoted himself to the service of religion. Having founded several monasteries in his native country—which had received Christianity from the Cambrian or Welsh missionaries in the year 432—and becoming weary of the warlike feuds of a restless people, he departed, in 565, with twelve followers, for Scotland. Here, conformably to the practice of the age, he pitched upon the lonely western isle of Hii, I, or Iona, as the most favourable spot for religious seclusion, and received the investiture of it from his cousin, Conal, king of the Caledonian Scots. His arrival in Scotland is thus related by the venerable Bede: "In the year of our Lord's incarnation, 565, there came a presbyter and abbot, a monk in life and habit, very famous, by name Columba, out of Ireland into Scotland, to preach the word of God to the provinces of the northern Picts." From thence, as a missionary station, Columba sent his disciples to different quarters of Scotland; and under the patronage and protection of Bridei, king of the Picts, and Conal, son of Congal, king of the Scots, Christianity is represented to have made rapid progress. The Culdees with the followers of Columba originated the discipline and manners of the Culdees. The name Culdee is of Celtic or Gaelic origin, and is probably derived from *Ceile* or *Gille De*; that is, 'those separated to God,' 'the servants of the Sovereign One,' in opposition to the polytheistic worship still existing among our ancestors. It was not, however, till the erection of a monastery at St Andrews, about A. D. 800, that the Christian missionaries and instructors were publicly denominated Culdees. To these delegated presbyters of Iona, or I-colum-kill, all Scotland, and a great part of the north of England, owe their Christianity. Their doctrines retained much of the purity of the primitive church. These primitive instructors of our ancestors are said to have spent much time in the study of the scriptures, and to have drawn their doctrines and rules of practice from them only. Unlike the votaries of celibacy, they honoured marriage and the ties of social life; far removed from monkish austerity, they were social, cheerful, and philanthropic; with their own hands they ministered to their own necessities and those of others: they were addicted to study, and to reading the scriptures; and excelled in psalmody. With such habits they soon became universally popular; and they retained their influence and establishments for several centuries. When, and by whom the Culdees were suppressed in Iona is uncertain. They certainly existed until the

and the bastards of bishops. Benefices given in *commendam* were kept vacant during the commendator's life, sometimes during several lives, to the deprivation of extensive parishes of all provision of religious service. Preaching—if preaching it could be called—was wholly the province of the mendicant monks. As the clergy were exempted from secular jurisdiction, and corrupted by wealth and idleness, their lives scandalized religion and outraged common decency. And yet amid all this profligacy, it was deemed most impious to reduce the number, abridge the privileges, or alienate the funds of the monasteries, which, through the blind devotion and munificence of princes and nobles, had prodigiously increased, and become the nurseries of idleness and superstition, and haunts of lewdness and debauchery. Besides the regular and secular clergy, there were nuns of St Austin, St Clare, St Scholastica, and St Catherine of Sienna, and canonesses of various orders, whose general ignorance was as great as their morals were gross. Though the Papal See had not the power of presenting to the Scottish prelacies, it never wanted numerous pretexts for interfering with them. The most important civil causes, which they had contrived to bring within the pale of their ecclesiastical jurisdiction, were carried to Rome; whither also, money in large quantities was sent for the purchasing of palls, the confirmation of benefices, and the conducting of appeals, &c. Such a system of corruption and imposture could not be defended; it was upheld only by persecution and the suppression of free inquiry; every avenue to truth was carefully guarded, and learning was branded as the parent of heresy. Even so late as 1525, an act of parliament was passed, prohibiting ships from bringing any of Luther's books into Scotland.

The Reformation.] In 1528 the desire of reformation which agitated other parts of Europe made its appearance in Scotland. The doctrines of Luther were rapidly and widely diffused throughout Scotland notwithstanding the opposition of the clergy. At last a more systematic persecution was resorted to, and the first martyr whose blood flowed in the cause of the Reformation in Scotland was Patrick Hamilton, abbot of Fearn, a young nobleman of genius and learning, who had imbibed the new tenets during his travels on the continent from the conversation of Luther and Melancthon, and had begun to propagate them on his return to his native land with great success. Hamilton was accused of heresy before the archbishops of St Andrews and Glasgow, and condemned to the flames. In 1538 Forest, a Benedictine friar, and a disciple of Hamilton, was condemned to the stake for vindicating the tenets of his master; and in the following year the friars Keiller and Beveridge, Sir Duncan Simpson, Forrester, and Forrest vicar of Dollar, were condemned as heretics by a convocation of bishops assembled in Edinburgh, and burnt together in the same fire on the Castle-hill. Such violent proceedings alarming the Protestants, many of them saved themselves by voluntary exile; but others boldly remained behind and became the apostles of the new doctrines to their benighted countrymen; and though many of them perished in the bold and patriotic enterprise, their blood became the seed of the church of Christ; and their memory will be held in everlasting veneration. Nevertheless, there are not wanting persons in this land, and this degenerate age, who, while sitting at ease under the vines and fig-trees first planted by the unwearied toils and watered by the blood of these patriots, have had the shameless effrontery to undervalue their labours, depreciate their

talents, misrepresent their actions, vilify their memories, calumniate their motives, and hold up their characters to ridicule. How truly has the poet sung :

Patriots have toil'd, and in their country's cause
Bled nobly ; and their deeds, as they deserve,
Receive good recompense——

—But martyrs struggle for a brighter prize,
And win it with more pain. Their blood is shed
In confirmation of the noblest claim,—
Our claim to feed upon immortal truth,
To walk with God, to be divinely free,
To soar and to anticipate the skies.
Yet few remember them.——

———With their names
No bard embalms and sanctifies his song :
And history, so warm on meaner themes,
Is cold on this. She execrates, indeed,
The tyranny that doom'd them to the fire,
But gives the glorious sufferers little praise."—COWPER.

The Reformation in Scotland commenced in the reign of James V., and made considerable progress under that of his daughter, though both of them were Catholics ; it was completed by the consummate abilities and fervent zeal of John Knox, and other Protestant preachers, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, established at Geneva. In 1560, the Roman Catholic religion was abolished, and the Reformation was sanctioned by act of Parliament. Until a regular form of church-government was settled, a few superintendents were appointed, who were accountable to the general assembly. As soon as presbyteries were erected, the office of superintendent ceased. General assemblies began in 1560, and continued to meet twice every year, for the space of twenty years ; after which they were annual.

From 1572 to 1592, a sort of Episcopacy obtained in the church, while the ecclesiastical form of government was Presbyterian. Meantime, the dignitaries of the church and the nobility monopolized the revenues of the church, and left the reformed clergy in a state of indigence. After much deliberation, the Protestant leaders resolved to provide a state-maintenance for their teachers, and the following plan was adopted. Two-thirds of all ecclesiastical benefices were reserved by the present possessor and to the crown the remainder was annexed, out of which a competent subsistence was to be assigned to the Protestant clergy. But the revenue thus appropriated, instead of being duly applied, was diverted into other channels. In 1587, all the unalienated church-lands were annexed to the crown ; and the tithes alone were reserved for the support of the clergy. Bishops continued till 1592, when presbyterian government was established by an act of parliament, and a division was made of the church into synods and presbyteries. But the king, desirous of having the power of the bishops restored as a balance to the nobles in parliament, prevailed on a majority of the clergy, in 1597 and 1598, to agree that some ministers should represent the church in parliament, and that there should be constant moderators in presbyteries. In 1606, by act of parliament, the temporalities of bishops were restored ; and they were allowed a seat in parliament. Thus, the presbyterian government was overturned.

In 1610, Episcopacy was established by an act of the general assembly

at Glasgow. To this change of government the civil sanction was given in 1612; but the subordination of judicatories was regularly kept up until Charles I. mounted the throne. Assemblies were then set aside; but synods and presbyteries were continued. Bishops, now being under no control, and encouraging tyranny in the state and innovation in the church, became so hateful, that all ranks concurred in their ejection. By an act of the general assembly in 1638, Episcopacy was condemned, and the bishops were deposed. This restoration of Presbyterian government was ratified by parliament in 1641. By another act, landholders were permitted to buy their own tithes, at from six to nine years' purchase, liable however to the augmentation of stipends. General assemblies were annually kept till 1653, when this court was put down by the civil power. From this time till 1690, there was not a meeting of the general assembly. In 1662, the government of the church by bishops was restored by the royal prerogative, and in the same year was ratified by parliament. Synods and presbyteries were allowed. A persecution of Presbyterians ensued, during which about 400 ministers were ejected for nonconformity, and great numbers of Covenanters perished for their testimony.

In 1689, Prelacy was declared, by a convention of estates, to be a national grievance, which ought to be abolished. In 1690 the Presbyterian government was restored, and established by parliament; and the general assembly met, after it had been discontinued from the year 1652. Hitherto, the provision for the maintenance of the clergy was inadequate. Complaints being made to king James in 1602, commissioners, in 1617, were appointed to plant churches, and modify stipends. By those commissioners, the lowest stipend was fixed at 6 chalders of victual, or 500 merks. In 1633, the *minimum* of stipends was raised to 800 merks, or 8 chalders of victual. As the value of grain soon after rose to £100 Scots per chalders, this became the legal conversion in adjusting stipends, and in the valuation and sale of tithes.

Ecclesiastical Establishment.] Presbyterian church government, established in Scotland by act of parliament in 1690, and afterwards secured in the treaty of Union, is founded on a parity of ecclesiastical authority among all its presbyters, or pastors, and modelled after the Calvinistic plan in Geneva, which Mr Knox recommended to his countrymen. This form of government excludes all pre-eminence of order, all ministers being held equal in rank and power. The manner in which power is distributed among the judicatories of the church is as follows: Scotland is divided into 899 parishes, each of which has one pastor who discharges the pastoral office according to his discretion, and is accountable to the presbytery of which he is a member. In matters relating to discipline, a pastor is assisted by elders, who ought to be selected from among the most intelligent and consistent of the parishioners, but who have no right to teach, nor to dispense the sacraments. Their proper office is to watch over the morals of the people, and to catechize and visit the sick. They likewise discharge the office of deacons, by managing the funds for the maintenance of the poor within their bounds.¹⁶ The elders and

¹⁶ The management of the poor is a most important branch of public economy in every state. The mode of supplying the necessities of the poor in Scotland, is extremely different from that which is followed in England. In Scotland, the poor are under the care of the kirk-session. The money by which they are supplied, is collected chiefly at the church-doors on Sundays; and this, joined to other voluntary contributions and legacies, is in general adequate, not only to the relieving in some degree the necessities of the poor, but to the accumulation of a considerable stock for meeting extraordinary

minister compose what is called a *Kirk* or *Church-Session*, the lowest ecclesiastical judicature in Scotland. When a parishioner is convicted of immoral conduct, the church-session inflicts some ecclesiastical censure. If the person thinks himself aggrieved, he may appeal to the presbytery, which is the next superior court.

The ministers of an indefinite number of contiguous parishes, with one ruling elder chosen half-yearly out of every church-session, constitute what is called a *presbytery*, which has cognizance of all ecclesiastical matters within its bounds. Presbyteries take trial of candidates for the ministry, whom, if they find duly qualified, they license to preach, but not to dispense the sacraments. Holy orders are not conferred on such licentiates till they acquire a right to a benefice. Presbyteries also judge their own members, at least in the first instance. But appeals from their judgments to the synod, in whose bounds the presbytery lies, are competent. Presbyteries originally held their meetings every week, now every month; and they have power to adjourn to whatever time or place within their district they shall think proper. But, if they neglect to adjourn, they are considered as defunct, and can only be revived by the General Assembly, and not by act or deed of their own.

Synods are composed of several presbyteries, and of a ruling elder from every church-session within their bounds. Most of them meet twice a year, viz. in April and October. They review the procedure of presbyteries, and judge in references, complaints, and appeals from the inferior court. But their decisions and acts are reversible by the *General Assembly*, which is the highest ecclesiastical court, and from which there is no appeal. This court consists of commissioners, or representatives from presbyteries, universities, and royal boroughs, in the following proportion: viz. 200 ministers, 89 elders representing presbyteries, 67 representing royal boroughs, and 5 ministers or elders from universities;—in all 361. These commissioners are chosen annually, between 40 and 70 days before the meeting of the Assembly. This supreme court meets annually in May, and continues to sit 10 days; after which, it is dissolved by the

exigencies. No one in Scotland, while he is capable of any degree of exertion, is entitled to complete support; and till lately few indeed were willing to apply for seasonal assistance till every other resource had failed them. In some parishes, where the money collected in the ordinary way is not sufficient for the supply of the poor, the deficiency is made up by a proportional assessment on the landholders when it is thought necessary. The number of such parishes is not great; and as the example is justly reckoned pernicious, it is always very unwillingly followed. In England, the chief dependance of the poor is on funds raised by assessment upon the landholders, and known by the name of the *poor's rates*. Every man who is known to be unable to maintain himself, is entitled to be supported by that parish which gave him birth. The consequence is, that the poor's rates in England are always high, and are justly esteemed a very great burden on the industrious ranks of society. It would not be easy to ascertain the sum annually distributed among the poor in Scotland. If the average sum distributed by each parish be £50, and the number of parishes be 900, the average sum annually distributed will be £45,000. This is exclusive of the money frequently distributed by dissenting congregations amongst their poor, which amounts to a very considerable sum. The whole money distributed among the poor in Scotland, exclusive of charitable institutions in great cities, is, probably, not much above £108,000. Five shillings monthly, or £3 annually, may be the average annual sum received by each person; consequently, the number of persons relieved, may be about 36,000, excluding, as already mentioned, the persons relieved by local charitable institutions. The amount of poor's rates in England for 1814, exceeded £3,000,000; and the number of persons relieved formed nearly one-tenth part of the whole population. If the poor's rates for 1814 had been divided equally among the whole population of England, each individual would have received about eleven shillings; while all the money paid to the poor by the kirk-sessions in Scotland did not amount in that year to eightpence for each of its inhabitants. The poor's rates of the sister-country have prodigiously increased since 1814, notwithstanding an administration on the whole more careful.

Moderator, and by the King or his Commissioner. Every ecclesiastical transaction in any of the inferior courts is subject to the review of the Assembly; and its decisions in religious matters are final. This court has likewise power to make laws and canons concerning the discipline and government of the Church.

The clergy have salaries, called *stipends*, paid out of the teinds of their parishes. The amount of every minister's stipend is fixed by the Court of Session, who are Commissioners of Teinds, acting as a committee of the Scottish parliament.

There are in Scotland 903 parish churches, and 972 parochial ministers performing religious service. All of these clergymen are entitled to a house, offices, and a portion of glebe land, both equal in value on an average to about £40 a year; and to receive, either from the tithes of the parish, or from the exchequer of the country, at least £150 a year; some have considerably more; those who reside in royal burghs are not entitled to houses and glebes. A very small number indeed receive—chiefly from ground-rents of houses, which have been built on their glebes—a sum not much short of £1000 a year; but it may be properly enough stated, that the average income of the clergymen of the church of Scotland is not above £260, exclusive of their houses and glebes, which valued at £40 a year makes in all £300.

Besides the parish-churches and clergymen, there are, connected with the establishment, 55 *Chapels of Ease* in populous parishes, the clergymen of which are usually elected by the heads of families, and paid by the rents of seats, nearly in the same manner as they are among dissenters. The income thus arising to the clergymen of these chapels is usually from £150 to £300 a year, and in some cases even more. There are, moreover, in connection with the church, about thirty-eight chapels, and nearly the same number of clergymen, who are styled *Missionaries*, in various remote districts of the Highlands. These persons are supported by an annual allowance of £2000 from the crown. The society for propagating Christian knowledge has upon its list a few chapels and preachers. Forty new chapels have been erected or are in course of building by means of a Parliamentary grant of £100,000, which was made some time ago; and in these chapels it is intended that the preacher shall receive £120 a year, besides a house and small piece of land. Scotland is thus supplied with the following number of places of worship, and clergymen of the established presbyterian faith:—

	Churches	Min.
Parish Churches (in round numbers)	900	970
Chapels of Ease	55	55
Chapels in the Highlands depending on the Royal Bounty	38	38
Chapels depending on the Society for propagating Christian Knowledge	7	7
Chapels erected or erecting by recent grant	40	40
	<hr/> 1040	<hr/> 1110

Dissenters.] From the Revolution down to the commencement of the Secession, dissenters were rare in Scotland. The restoration of patronage, (which had been abolished in 1690, along with Episcopal government,) in 1712, paved the way for the existence and growth of dissenterism. In consequence of many violent settlements, frequent appeals had been made, and remonstrances tendered to the judicatories of the church, but to very little purpose. A petition was presented to the General Assembly which

met in May 1732, signed by 40 ministers, and several ruling elders, moving the Assembly to redress specified grievances. But the petition was refused to be transferred by the committee of bills, whereupon, a protest, signed by 15 ministers, was taken against the conduct of the General Assembly. In October, 1732, Mr Ebenezer Erskine, of Stirling, in a synod sermon made some very severe remarks on the conduct of the ecclesiastical courts in enforcing the settlement of ministers in parochial charges against the will of the people. These remarks, along with the charges of defection both in purity of doctrine and strictness of discipline, deeply offended the synod, who passed by a majority of six voices, a vote of censure on said sermon: and, by another vote, appointed Mr Erskine to be rebuked and admonished at their bar. Against this censure and sentence, he along with three other ministers, appealed to the General Assembly in 1733. But the Assembly affirmed the sentence of the synod of Perth and Stirling, and refused to sustain the appeal and protest of the four ministers; and they continuing still to adhere to their appeal and protest, were finally by an act of the commission of the General Assembly, loosed from their charges, deprived of their livings, and cast out from the communion of the church, on the 14th of November, 1733. Thus commenced the *Secession*, which soon became a numerous and respectable body. In 1747, a difference about the lawfulness of the religious clause in some burgess oaths, took place among them; one party, hence called *Burghers*, affirming it to be lawful;—the other, called *Antiburghers*, no less strenuously maintaining it to be unlawful. These two bodies, however, in consequence of a change of circumstances, were recently enabled to make overtures to each other for an union, which was speedily effected, with the exception of only 10 dissenting Antiburgher ministers, who now form what is called the *Associate Synod*.

Principles hostile to ecclesiastical establishments, national churches, and the power of the civil magistrate *circa sacra*, as laid down in the Confession of Faith of the Church of Scotland, together with the binding obligation of the covenants, national and solemn league, upon posterity, as stated and maintained in the standard books of the secession body, both burghers and antiburghers, had been imperceptibly gaining ground amongst both these parties from a very early period after the foundation of the secession. Subscription to the Confession of Faith, however, was rigidly required by the secession body from every candidate for license and ordination; and that confession, in all its parts, was most faithfully adhered to by the whole body of seceders until 1795, when a petition was presented to the Burgher Associate Synod, by the Rev. Mr Frazer, praying for a reform, in the matter of subscription to the doctrine of the magistrates' power *circa sacra*, and the binding obligation of the national and solemn league upon posterity. An act of forbearance was at first proposed, in order to satisfy the petitioner, and such as were of his sentiments. But this act not being approved of, a preamble was adopted in its stead, and prefixed to the formula, the intention of which was, to allow candidates for license or ordination to entertain whatever notions they chose to adopt concerning the doctrine of the magistrates' power *circa sacra*, and the binding obligation of the covenants. While this process was going on in the Burgher Synod, a similar one was in progress in the General Associate Synod, which issued in the adoption of a Narrative and Testimony. To this measure a small number of ministers refused to accede; and formed themselves into a presbytery, holding exactly their former principles, but designating themselves, from

the circumstances which occasioned their organization, the *Constitutional Associate Presbytery*. Among the Burghers the opposition was much more formidable, and the adherents to the original Testimony erected themselves into a synod, designated the *Original Burgher Associate Synod*.

The origin of the *Reformed Presbyterian Synod* vulgarly called *Cameronians*, is almost coeval with the Revolution Settlement; but it is only since they were joined by seceders from the Secession that they have become numerous. Their principles seem to be exactly those of the Secession, with the exception of some distinctions with regard to obedience to civil rulers, who are at the same time admitted by both parties to be acting upon a constitution often at variance with the Bible, and necessarily involving the breach of national vows. Later in the order of time, but superior in numbers, is the *Synod of Relief*, which has established congregations in many places of the country. Of still more modern date is the introduction of *Independency* into Scotland. There are besides the above, congregations of *Baptists*, *Bereans*, *Quakers*, and *Roman Catholics*. The number of these dissenting congregations and ministers respectively stands thus :

	Con.	Min.
1. United Associate Synod of the Secession Church	323	275
2. Associate Synod	19	11
3. Original Burgher Associate Synod	46	32
4. Constitutional Presbytery	16	10
5. Synod of Relief	82	80
6. Reformed Presbytery	27	18
7. Scottish Episcopal Union	66	70
8. Other Episcopalians, not of the Scottish Episcopal Union	6	7
9. Independents, or the Congregational Union of Scotland	72	68
10. Roman Catholics	58	46
11. Other Sects uncertain, but not probably exceeding	50	40
	<hr/> 770	<hr/> 657

The discrepancy between the number of congregations and clergymen arises from the circumstance of a good many of the congregations being unable to give full support to a regular clergyman, although the people keep together in the different places, and receive such occasional supplies of instructors as their own means, or the disposition of their respective church courts, can afford to them; some sects have no stated or paid pastors.

The dissenting clergymen enjoy incomes from their respective congregations, averaging £130 or £135 a year, including in this the estimated yearly value of a house and garden, usually provided by the congregation, which may be worth £15 or £20 yearly. But in large towns the incomes are much larger,—in some instances amounting to £300 or £400 a year.

CHAP. IX.—CHIEF CITIES.

CITY OF EDINBURGH.] Edinburgh, the metropolis of Scotland, stands about a mile and a half from the southern shore of the Firth of Forth, in a situation equally beautiful and picturesque. It is embosomed among hills, having Salisbury Crags and Arthur's Seat on the E. the hills of Braid and Pentland to the S. and the heights of Corstorphine on the W. To-

ward the N. and N. E. the view expands across rich and highly cultivated grounds thickly studded with villas, over the firth with its beautiful islets, and the highly cultivated coast of Fife, terminating on the Lomonds, and the green Ochils, and, to the N. W. on the craggy tops of the Grampians, in the distant horizon.

History.] Antiquarians are not agreed respecting the origin of the city. The Castle, it is said, was originally called the Fortress of the Hill of Agnes. In later times it was styled the Maiden Fort, because it was the place of residence for the daughters of the Pictish race of kings. It is supposed to have been built about the year 626, and to have derived its name either from *Eth*, a Pictish king, or according to others, from *Edwin* a Saxon king. Another etymology derives it from *dun* and *edin* two Gaelic words which signify 'the face of hills.' In a charter of David I. dated 1128, the town is styled *Edwin's burg*. It was long the principal royal residence of Scotland; and has been regarded as its metropolis since about the year 1450.

Topography.] The city is seated upon three ridges running from E. to W. That in the middle, beginning at Holyrood House and terminating in the abrupt rock upon which stands the Castle, is the highest, and has a deep ravine on either side. Along the bottom of that to the south, and between it and the middle ridge, runs the Cowgate. The North Loch, the descent to which is only partially occupied, divides the Old from the New town which occupies the northern eminence, and extends over the northern slope towards the E. and W. By means of the South and North bridges, a spacious and level street is carried from the south end of the town, over the Cowgate and the North Loch, into Prince's Street. What is generally called the principal or High street, however, runs along the ridge of the middle eminence, under various designations, and nearly in a straight line, from the palace of Holyrood, to the Castle, a distance of something more than a mile. From this main street, a number of streets, or rather lanes, diverge at nearly right angles. This is a remarkably picturesque street, rich in general effect and historical associations. The New Town is joined to the Old by the North Bridge and the Earthen Mound; the latter is an artificial bank of earth, begun in 1783, and formed of the rubbish dug from the foundations of the New Town. The New Town is built upon ground added to the royalty in 1767, since which time, a succession of streets and squares have been constructed on it, equal, if not superior in elegance and regularity, to those of any other city in the world. That part of the town then planned was a parallelogram, 3900 feet from E. to W. and 1090 from N. to S. The streets on its longest sides, namely, Prince's-street, and Queen's-street, consist each of only one row of houses, and form two beautiful terraces which overlook the declivities on the south and north. Parallel to these, a magnificent street called George's-street, 115 feet wide, passes through the centre, and terminates in St Andrew's square on the E. and in Charlotte's square on the W. These parallel streets are intersected by seven spacious streets which cross them at right angles. A farther extension of the city has been made on the inclined plane to the N. in a still superior style of architecture. Into this extended plan, a mixture of straight and incurvated streets and squares, circles and octagons, has been tastefully introduced. A very fine causeway to the N. E. slopes downward to Leith. On each side of this road a farther extension of the city has been begun. A magnificent entrance into the city from the E. has been formed over the Calton-hill. It is carried forward with an easy

descent across the hollow at the bottom of the hill, by an elegant bridge which connects the Calton-hill with Prince's-street. From this road, and above all from the top of the Calton hill itself, Edinburgh is seen to great advantage. The New Town appears spread out beneath the spectator in beautiful regularity; and the Old Town rises on the adjoining ridges in huge and imposing masses. Another fine entrance to the city from the E., called the London road, skirts the Calton on its northern side and opens into Leith walk. Another entrance from the W. which is to run round the base of the Castle hill, is now forming.¹⁷

[*The Castle.*] Of the public buildings in Edinburgh, the Castle is the most remarkable. It is situated at the W. end of the Old Town, on a rugged rock rising abruptly on three sides from a level plain to the height of 200 feet. In some parts, toward the N. more especially, the precipice is perpendicular, and even overhangs its base. The castle with its works, occupies an area of seven English acres, and is separated from the town by an open space nearly 300 feet square. The entrance is protected by a barrier of palisades, a dry ditch, over which there is a draw-bridge, and a gate flanked by two batteries. On the other side the rock being inaccessible forms a natural defence. Before the invention of fire-arms it was a place of great strength, but it would now be very easily reduced. It is still used as a military station, and has accommodation for about 2000 men. One of the apartments, called the *Crown room*, contains the regalia of Scotland which were deposited here at the Union; but in February, 1818, the chest in which they had been placed was broken open by royal warrant, and was found to contain the crown, the sceptre, the sword of state, and a silver rod of office, with a copy of the deposition. They are now placed under the care of Commissioners.

[*Holyrood.*] At the opposite or eastern extremity of the Old Town, stands the palace and abbey of Holyrood, for several centuries the residence of the monarchs of Scotland. The abbey—of which only the walls remain—was founded in the year 1128 by David I.; and in the burying place within are interred several of his successors. The palace is a large quadrangular edifice of hewn stone, with a court within surrounded by piazzas. At each angle of the W. front are two double circular towers; and in the centre is a portico, decorated by four Doric columns, which support a cupola in the form of a crown. The palace contains a gallery 150 feet long, 72½ wide and 18 high, decorated with rude portraits of the kings of Scotland from the time of Fergus I. In this hall the nobility of Scotland still meet, when they elect their 16 representatives in the British house of peers. As it now stands, the palace is not of high antiquity. Its N. W. towers were built by James V., the remainder was added during the reign of Charles II.

[*Parliament Square.*] In the centre of the city is a small square, called the Parliament-square, in which is an elegant equestrian statue of Charles II. There is also a large irregular pile of building, partly old and partly new, in which the supreme courts hold their sittings for the administration of justice. The original portion of the building called the Parliament House was finished in the year 1640, and was intended for the reception of the Scottish parliament. It consists of a hall, 122 feet in length by 49 in breadth, and not less than 40 feet high. The workmanship of the inner roof, which is of a polygonal figure, is of massy oak timber, ornamented with gilding, and supported by abutments projecting from the wall, and has been generally admired. In the interior these buildings have lately received great improvements, and the front has been replaced by another with an elegant piazza. In the apartments under this court, is contained the advocates' library, which is the richest collection of books in Scotland. It consists of more than 100,000 printed volumes, and above 1000 volumes of manuscripts. For the reception of this library, and a fine one belonging to the writers to the signet, magnificent apartments are attached to the N. W. corner of the parliament-house. Adjoining to the parliament-house, and with a similar exterior, are placed the new apartments of the court of exchequer. The great fires which occurred in this square in the winter of 1626 having consumed the old houses which formed the other half of the square, a pile of new buildings, to be occupied by public offices, and forming an exact counterpart in front to the front of the Parliament-house, has been erected in their place; so that the square now presents an harmonious and beautiful appearance. The metropolitian church, dedicated to St Giles, is the most ancient in the city. It is built in the figure of a cross, and forms the N. side of the parliament-square. It was erected into a collegiate church in 1466, but is supposed to have been founded 600 years before. From the centre of the structure rises a square tower, surmounted by slender arches of exquisite workmanship, supporting a handsome spire 161 feet in height: the whole exhibiting the appearance of an imperial crown. This edifice is now undergoing extensive repairs. Nearly opposite to the parliament square stands the *Royal Exchange*. It is built in the form of a square, with a court in the centre, and is now occupied by different offices appropriated to the despatch of the municipal business of the city. The *Register Office*, in which the public records of Scotland are deposited, is situated at the east end of Prince's-street, facing the North-bridge. It was founded in 1774, and is distinguished for its lightness, elegance, and classical simplicity of design.

Edinburgh is supported chiefly by its courts of justice, of which the jurisdiction extends over all Scotland. Law is the leading profession; and those who derive their subsistence from this source, form the chief class of its inhabitants. Being the national rendezvous of luxury and

The College, &c.] The earlier of the public buildings of the Scottish metropolis, are, generally speaking, in the Palladian, or Roman style, with the exception of the college. Adams, in this last, has left a most splendid proof of genius. Viewed, as it ought to be, in itself, within the quadrangle, it fills the eye with a burst of splendid magnificence, equal to any effect we have ever experienced in modern building. It was commenced in 1769, and is just completed, under the superintendence of Mr Playfair. The portico of the front is supported by six Doric columns, each a single mass of stone 23 feet in height. The more recent structures are in the true Grecian modes—transcripts from the *Theseum* and *Parthenon*.

To enumerate the other splendid edifices of this princely city would greatly exceed our limits. In the recent buildings of the Royal Institution, the New Academy, and the New High School, Edinburgh possesses the finest specimens of Grecian architecture yet executed in this country. The national monument designed to be erected on the summit of the Calton, is intended to be an exact copy of the *Parthenon* of Athens. Unfortunately, however, after the erection of eight splendid Doric pillars at an expense it is said of upwards of £11,000, funds have fallen short. It is to be hoped however that this edifice will yet be completed, in the full magnificence of the original design. The edifice is a national one, and will surely be supported by a national subscription. The new Observatory, within a few yards of the gigantic columns of the *Parthenon*, is a gem of art, affording perhaps the purest specimen of Grecian architecture in Scotland.

Societies and Hospitals.] Edinburgh, as might naturally be supposed, has a great many Societies and literary associations. Of these the principal are, the Royal Society—the Royal Society of Antiquaries—and the Wernerian Society,—all of which have published several volumes of transactions. The Highland Society, for encouraging agriculture and the arts in the Highlands, but which extends its labours to Scotland in general, distributes yearly £700 in premiums for inventions and improvements; and the Celtic Society has for its object the preserving the language and customs of the Highlands. The Faculty of Advocates, and the Royal Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons are leading public bodies. The principal charitable institution, is that endowed by George Herriot, jeweller to James VI., for educating and maintaining the sons of burghesses and freemen. It was erected in 1650, at the expense of £30,000, after a beautiful design of Inigo Jones. The average number of youths resident in it, is 180; and its revenue is immense, and yearly increasing from the increasing value of the fees which belong to this trust. Upon a much smaller scale is Watson's Hospital, for the sons and grandsons of deceased or decayed members of the Merchant company—the Merchants' Maiden Hospital, for the daughters of decayed merchants, with a revenue of £1,350—the Trades' Maiden Hospital, for the daughters of tradesmen, with a revenue of £600—and the Orphan Hospital, for orphans from any part of the kingdom. There are also the Trinity hospital, for maintaining decayed burghesses, their wives and unmarried daughters,—Gillespie's hospital, for educating poor children, and for maintaining decayed persons of both sexes who are above 55 years of age,—three charity work-houses, an asylum for the industrious blind,—a Magdalene asylum,—and two houses of industry. The Royal Infirmary is an elegant structure. It has accommodation for 250 patients, and is attended by two physicians and six surgeons. The High School and Academy, the grammar schools of the city, are attended by boys from seven to fifteen years of age, who belong almost entirely to the middle ranks; and live with their parents or friends throughout the city. The attendants at the High School for the last six years has been on an average 680; that of the academy since it was opened in October, 1824, has been on an average 500. The University of Edinburgh, now so celebrated, was founded in 1582. In 1590, a professorship of law was established, from funds contributed by the judges, advocates, writers to the signet, and town council. In 1640, a professorship was appointed for Hebrew; and others have been subsequently added by the crown, the magistrates of the city, and occasionally by the liberality of individuals. The number now amounts to 27, which are classed as follows: Faculty of Theology—Divinity, Church History, and Oriental languages. Faculty of Law—Law of Nature and Nations, Civil Law, Scotch Law, Conveyancing and Civil History and Antiquities. Faculty of Medicine—Anatomy and Surgery, Practice of Medicine, Botany, Materia Medica, Chemistry, Theory of Medicine, Midwifery, Natural History, Clinical Surgery, Military Surgery, and Medical Jurisprudence. Faculty of Arts—Moral Philosophy, Rhetoric and Belles Lettres, Greek, Latin, Natural Philosophy, Mathematics, Practical Astronomy, Logic, and Agriculture. In the three branches of the law of nature and nations, civil history and practical astronomy, no lectures have been given for several years. The number of students has of late years been upwards of 2000. The fees of the different classes are from £3 *ss.* to £4 *ss.* To the university is attached a very extensive library, and a very rich museum of natural history. The university botanic garden is situated about half a mile to the N. of the city. It occupies 8 acres of ground, having in the middle conservatory, a lecture room, and a pond for aquatic plants.

fashion, as well as of literature and taste, its society has a general tone and polish greatly superior to that of merely mercantile cities. During the winter-months, it is the resort of most of the opulent families in the country, who find it an advantageous place for the education of their children, and for their introduction into the circles of polite society. The trade of Edinburgh consists chiefly in supplying the wants of its rich and refined inhabitants; and its manufactures being principally adapted to this end, consist of household furniture, travelling carriages, musical instruments, engraving in all its branches, statuary, &c. &c., in all of which great taste and skill are displayed. Between 300 and 400 weavers are employed in the working of linen, silks, sarsonets, and fine shawls, which have been greatly improved of late. There are also brass and iron manufactures, and distilleries of spirits in the neighbourhood. Bookselling and printing are of course carried on in this literary city to a great extent.

Municipal Government.] Edinburgh is a royal borough; and, in respect to its magistracy, it is constituted on a plan nearly similar to that of the other boroughs of Scotland. Its town-council consists of 33 members; viz. a lord provost, 4 bailies, a dean of guild, and treasurer, and those who during the preceding year had held the same offices, under the title of old provost, old bailies, old dean of guild, old treasurer; 3 merchant-councillors, 2 trades' councillors, 6 ordinary and 8 extraordinary council-deacons. The incorporated trades of the city amount to 15; of these 14 have the right of sending a member to the town council, and the council returns a representative to parliament. Population has been for a long period gradually, and of late very rapidly increasing. In 1811 the population of Edinburgh and Leith—for they are always taken together—was 102,987, and in 1831, 162,156.

Leith.] The seaport of Edinburgh is situated a little to the N. E. of the city, on the banks of the Water of Leith, which divides the town into two districts, called South and North Leith, and forms the harbour, at its confluence with the Firth of Forth. The town is mostly on the south side of the river, and is irregularly built, with narrow streets and lanes. The modern part of the town, however, such as St John's Place, St James'-street, Cassillis' Place, and the new streets in North Leith, which have been built within the last 20 or 30 years, is laid out according to a regular plan, and consists of well-built and elegant houses. The harbour of Leith was granted to the city of Edinburgh by king Robert I., in 1329; but the adjacent ground belonged to Logan of Restalrig, from whom they were obliged to purchase it at very high terms. A breastwork or quay was first built by the city of Edinburgh, some time after the purchase of Leith, with the adjoining lands, from Logan of Restalrig. In the beginning of the last century, it was carried to the northward a considerable way into the sea, somewhat in the form of a crescent, by the extension of wooden and stone piers. A new quay was erected on the N. side, and the harbour deepened in 1777. In 1800, an increasing trade required extensive improvements; a magnificent suite of wet docks was planned; and the first—a beautiful basin, 250 yards in length, by 100 in breadth, sufficient to accommodate 40 ships of 200 tons, was opened in 1806. A second was opened in 1817. These docks, comprehending nearly eight acres, together with three graving docks, have cost about 250,000*l*. It was intended to have a third, which would be able to receive frigates; but in consequence of the low state of trade, this and some other improvements are for the present suspended. The harbour has only 8 or 9 feet water at neap, and

13 or 14 at springtides; ships of burden of course can only enter the harbour at certain times, but the roads, about a mile from the shore, afford at all times good anchorage. Preparations are now making for carrying out the pier considerably beyond its present extent. Leith has a fort, which is the head quarters of the royal artillery in North Britain. The harbour is also defended by a martello tower, about a mile from the pier.

An extensive trade is carried on from this port with the Baltic, Holland, France, Spain, Portugal, the Mediterranean, the West Indies, Van Diemen's Land, and America; besides a great coasting trade, to the different ports of England and Scotland. The Greenland fishery is also prosecuted with great activity. Here are also extensive rope works, glass-houses, sugar refineries, soap-works, breweries, iron-works, a vinegar manufactory, a card manufactory, with an apparatus for drawing wire, and a manufactory of agricultural implements, in which great ingenuity is displayed. Ship-building is also carried on to a considerable extent, and there is an extensive distillery in the neighbourhood. Leith is under the jurisdiction of three magistrates or bailies, who continue two years in office, assisted by an assessor, appointed by the magistrates of Edinburgh, one of whose number presides as admiral of Leith harbour. The population in 1831, was 25,855.

Leith Roads.] Our nautical readers know that the Firth of Forth is a principal rendezvous for shipping during the storms which affect the eastern coast of Great Britain; and as a naval station, especially in the event of war with any of the northern powers, it is of primary importance to the best interests of the nation. Its access is obvious, and its navigation easy. Leith Roads, which afford its chief anchorage, are ample and commodious, possessing a soft bottom, with a depth of water varying from three to upwards of seven fathoms, and for larger vessels, to sixteen and eighteen fathoms. Connected with this extensive roadstead, there are other valuable mooring grounds above Queensferry, which resemble the higher parts of Plymouth Sound and Portsmouth, in regard to the shelter and security which they afford to shipping.

GLASGOW.] One of the most ancient cities of Scotland, and after London, the most populous in Great Britain, is situated in 4° 15' 51" W. Long., and 55° 52' 10" N. Lat., on the N. bank of the Clyde, extending from E. to W. about a mile and a half, and from north to south about three-fourths of a mile, exclusive of suburbs. Including the Barony of Gorbals, the suburbs of Calton, Bridgeton, Brownfield, Anderston, and Finnieston, it covers an extent of 650 acres of ground. From the circumstance of its occupying a valley overlooked by rising ground nearly on all sides, the whole of it can be embraced at one glance of the eye from the adjoining heights; and though it has a very compact and handsome appearance, it has less of grandeur than it would possess, were there something left for the imagination to fill up.¹⁰ With regard to its general appearance, it may be remarked, that it is for the most part clean and

¹⁰ *The Cathedral.*] Among the numerous public buildings of Glasgow, the first place is certainly due to the Cathedral or High Church, a very splendid edifice, and the most entire specimen of Gothic architecture to be found in Scotland. It appears to have been founded by John Achaius, bishop of Glasgow, in 1129. It continued to be carried on by succeeding bishops, aided by collections from all the churches of Scotland, and a liberal sale of indulgences to all who contributed to the pious undertaking, until, by bishop Joceline, it was dedicated to St Mungo, or Kentigern, on the last day of May, 1197. From an inscription upon the Abbey church of Melrose, it appears that the architect was John Murdo, who by the numerous works which he executed, seems to have been at the head of his profession in Scotland. The original plan of this Ca-

neat, with few mean houses or dirty alleys. Many of the buildings, taken by themselves, are very fine, but much of their effect is lost from the want of skilful combination. The Trongate, however, is one of the noblest streets in Europe, and is ornamented with a fine equestrian statue of William III.

the-dral was in the form of a cross; though the transverse part on the south side has never been carried higher than the first tier of arches. It is 319 feet long, 65 broad, and 90 feet high within the walls. The circumference, measuring round the walls and abutments, is 1090 feet; it is supported by 147 pillars, and lighted by 157 windows of various dimensions, many of which are of exquisite workmanship. About the centre of the building, a square tower rises nearly 30 feet above the roof, supported by four massy pillars, each 29 feet 6 inches in circumference. On this tower, about the year 1420, was built a tapering octangular spire, with diminishing battlements. The spaces between the battlements are enlivened by pointed windows, and relieved by mouldings and small spires, the whole terminating in a ball and weathercock, at the height of 225 feet above the floor of the choir. A similar tower rises on the west end of the building, to a level with the first battlement. This tower contains the bell and clock. From the elevated situation of the ground upon which it is built, being 104 feet above the level of the river, the Cathedral is a most conspicuous object, and commands a delightfully extensive view of the surrounding country. The bold and lofty arches in the body of the church, formed by the concurrent ramifications of the opposite columns, and the massive pillars, exhibit a grand perspective, though the effect is somewhat hurt by the partitions by which it is divided into different places of worship. There are, besides the two places of worship above described, 11 churches and 5 chapels belonging to the establishment in Glasgow. *St Andrew's church*, situated in the centre of St Andrew's square, was begun in 1739, but was not finished till 1756. It is nearly a copy of St Martin's in the Fields, Westminster, and is the finest modern building consecrated to the service of religion, in Glasgow.

The College. The college buildings, with the four courts, three of which form quadrangles, occupy a space equal to 9556 square yards. The library is a handsome insulated building, on the south-east extremity. The Hunterian Museum is allowed to be one of the best imitations of classical building in Great Britain. It was erected in 1804, from designs by Mr Stark. It contains—as its name implies—the museum bequeathed to the university by the celebrated Dr William Hunter, of Longcalderwood, Kilbride, and latterly of London, and one of the most valuable collections in Europe of natural history, paintings, medals, anatomical preparations, books, &c. &c. The medals alone are estimated at 30,000*l*. The number of students is about 1400. The *Andersonian Institution*, founded by the late Mr Anderson, professor of natural philosophy in the university, deserves also to be noticed in this place, as contributing materially to the diffusion of knowledge among the citizens of Glasgow.

Other Public Edifices and the Green, &c. The *Royal Infirmary*, on the site of the archbishop's palace, containing accommodation for 300 patients, is a building which commands universal admiration, and the arrangements of the interior are every way suited for the purpose of the hospital. Hutcheson's Hospital, Ingram-street, is also a very fine building, with a tolerably handsome spire. The Assembly-rooms, in the same street,—the Trades' hall, in Glassford-street,—the Lunatic Asylum,—the Court and Gaol,—the Town-hall,—the old and new Exchanges,—the new Royal Bank,—and the Barracks, are all buildings worthy of the attention of the stranger, though we cannot afford room for more particular description. Immediately to the east of the city is a fine extent of ground called the *Green*, comprehending about 108 acres, which is used by the citizens as a bleaching field and a promenade. On the eminence of the high green stands *Nelson's Monument*—a lofty and beautiful obelisk, 143 feet in height. It was built at an expense of 2,075*l*. subscribed by the citizens of Glasgow, in the years 1806—7.

Bridges. The extensive suburbs of Hutchesontown, Gorbals, Laurieston, and Tradeston, communicate with the city by three bridges, and a fourth is in course of erection, which is designed, however, to supply the place of one of the three, which is of timber.—Previous to the year 1845, the bridge across the Clyde at Fishersgate was made of timber.—In 1845, William Rae, bishop of Glasgow, built the present bridge at *Stockwell-street*; it had eight arches, and was 12 feet wide within the parapets. In 1777 it was widened 10 feet on the east side, making the whole width within the parapets 22 feet. Two of the arches at the north end were at that time built up. In 1820 a second addition was made to its width. This bridge is now 415 feet long, by 30 feet 10 inches within the parapets.—In 1768 the foundation-stone of the *Jamaica-street Bridge* was laid. This bridge is 500 feet long and 30 feet 2 inches wide, within the pilasters of the parapets. It has recently been proposed to remove it and erect a more elegant and commodious structure in its place.—The new or *Hutchesontown bridge* will be a very handsome and commodious structure.

Hospitals, &c. The charitable institutions of Glasgow are numerous and extensive. We can only name a few of the principal. *Hutcheson's Hospital* was founded 1639—

History and Manufactures.] Glasgow owes its origin to St Mungo, who founded here a bishopric in the year 560, and died the following year. His tomb is still to be seen at the east end of the cathedral. For five hundred years after this period, Glasgow seems to have made little or no progress; but in 1115, David I. while prince of Cumberland, refounded the see, and having, in 1124, succeeded his brother Alexander I. as king of Scotland, he promoted his preceptor and chaplain, John Achaius, to the bishopric. After this the place seems to have risen into a little more importance, for in 1180 bishop Joceline procured a charter from William, surnamed the Lion, erecting the town into a royal burgh, with the privilege of holding a fair for eight days annually. In 1268, we find the town governed by a provost and baillies, who had the power of transferring property, and holding courts for the administration of justice. In 1450, bishop Turnbull obtained from James II. a charter, erecting the town and patrimonies of the bishopric into a regality. He also procured a bull from Pope Nicholas V. for erecting a university within the city, which he amply endowed. The establishment of this seat of literature contributed more than all that had previously been done towards the enlargement of the town, which was then so inconsiderable as not to contain more than 1500 inhabitants. Glasgow continued long to hold an inferior place among the towns of Scotland, and rated only the eleventh among royal burghs so late as the reign of queen Mary. It was not, indeed, till after the Union—a measure to which its inhabitants were most violently opposed—that Glasgow began to appreciate and improve the advantages of her situation. It was then she began to exchange goods for tobacco with the colonies of Maryland and Virginia, which for some time she did in vessels hired from the English. From this time her commercial progress was rapid, and so completely had she engrossed the tobacco-trade before the American war, that out of 90,000 hogsheads imported into Britain, 49,000 belonged to Glasgow. After this she began to trade with the West Indies, and her attention was early directed to the cotton-manufacture, which has proved the source of almost unexampled prosperity. Mr James Monteith of Anderston was the first who warped a muslin-web in Scotland; and the capital now employed in buildings, machinery, and spinning of cotton, by the merchants of Glasgow, may be estimated at above £1,500,000. Weaving, both by hand and steam-power, and calico-printing, dyeing, &c. are carried on to an immense extent. There are several iron-foundries in the city and suburbs, and extensive works for making steam-engines, machines, and machinery employed in the process of manufacturing. In 1825 there were 210 steam-engines in Glasgow, and since that period a number more have been put up. The business of weaving by steam is carried on to a great extent in this city. In 1825 there were about 50 of these factories in

40—41, by two brothers, George and Thomas Hutcheson. By subsequent benefactions, the stock has increased to above 27,000*l.* sterling, and the patrons have been able to distribute nearly 8,000*l.* per annum.—*Wilson's charity*, founded in 1778, educates at present 48 boys, in reading, writing, and church music.—*Millar's charity*, founded in 1790, educates about 60 girls, at a yearly expense of between two and three hundred pounds.—The *Town Hospital* was opened in 1733, and is supported by donations, assessments, &c., which have amounted to 12,000*l.* in one year, and in 1817, not less than 25,000 persons were upon its books. In addition to all these, the *Merchants' House* distributes to decayed members annually, above 900*l.*, and the different incorporated bodies, from 2000*l.* to 3000*l.* Glasgow has also a Magdalene asylum, a lock hospital, a dispensary, and benevolent societies of one kind and another far too numerous to be here particularized. Taking the whole amount of public charities in this city, they have been calculated at a sum considerably above 33,000*l.* per annum.

the city and neighbourhood. The average number of looms in each amounted to 185; but some of them contained between 400 and 500, while others had no more than 50 or 60. The greater part of these looms were employed in the manufacture of 11" cambrics or tweels; but since that period their application has been extended to a great variety of fabrics embracing even the more complex description of lappets, and latterly tambouring also. The average produce of one of these looms per week is five pieces of 24½ yards of a 11", and 16 yards of a 14", and a 11" is wefted 12, and a 14" 16 shots on the glass. Each of these looms will work as much as three hand-weavers, on an average; and thus as much work was done in Glasgow, in 1825, by machinery, as would have required 22,000 weavers to perform in the usual way. Every 2 of these looms require the attention of one woman or girl; and every 20, one man employed at a dressing machine. There are, besides, tenters, drawers, twistors, &c. &c. which will make another man or boy to the 20 looms. The quantity of cloth which must be produced by this machinery is immense. At the rate of 5 pieces a-week for each loom, the annual produce in 1825 would amount to 1,924,000 pieces, which, allowing 1,600,000 to be 11", gives 39,200,000 yards of that cloth, and the remaining 324,000 to be 14", gives 5,284,000 yards; in all 44,484,000. The value of of this manufacture alone would be upwards of £1,000,000. Glasgow has also manufactures of green bottles, flint glass, delft ware, &c. It appears from the books of the parochial officers, that in the ten parishes within the royalty, on the second day of July, 1821, there were 2,173 shops, of which 2,063 were occupied, and 110 unoccupied; the former were possessed by persons engaged in the following professions, viz. spirit dealers and changekeepers, 459; grocers, 381; huxters, 165; drapers and haberdashers, 122; batch, biscuit, and pastry bakers, 101; boot and shoemakers and leather cutters, 99; victuallers, 63; surgeons and druggists, 53; stationers, book and music sellers, 50; tobacconists, 43; brokers and dealers in old clothes, 42; milliners, 38; perfumers, hairdressers and barbers, 36; ironmongers, tin and copper smiths, 29; fleshers, 22; silversmiths and watchmakers, 22; eating or dinner shops, 21; tea dealers, 20; sundry professions, not above enumerated, 297.

Number of shops as above	2173
It is a curious fact that, in the year 1712, the Convention of Royal Burghs directed the Magistrates to depone to the number of shops in this city; on that occasion the return sworn to amounted to only	902
Increase of shops in 109 years	1271

In 1712, the rents of the shops in Glasgow ran from twelve shillings to five pounds sterling: whereas, in 1821, some of the shops were let at £200, and from that down to £100, several at £80, and a great number from £70 to £20; the average rent of shops may be taken, at a moderate calculation, at from £30 to £35. The river, by judicious improvements, is every year becoming the channel of a more extended navigation; and from the rapid progress made and still making in the application of mechanical power,—the inexhaustible supply of coal,—the advantage of water carriage in every direction, and facilities for executing railways,—it seems reasonable to conclude that Glasgow will long stand in the first rank in respect of commercial eminence among British cities.

Municipal Government.] The incorporated trades of Glasgow are 14;

and there is a chamber of commerce and manufactures, incorporated for the purpose of consulting the trading interests of the city. The municipal government is vested in a provost, 3 merchant-baillies, 2 trades'-baillies, a dean of guild, a deacon convener, a treasurer, a master of works, with 12 merchant counsellors and 10 trades' counsellors; to these may be added the baillies of Clyde, Gorbals, Provan, and Port-Glasgow.

Population.] About the time of the Reformation, the population of Glasgow might amount to 4,500. In 1708, it amounted to 12,766; in 1811 it amounted to 100,749; and in 1821 to 147,043. Thus during the 10 years from 1811 to 1821, inclusive, the population increased nearly 46 per cent. or 36.8 per cent. in eight years. The population has increased at the same rate for the last ten years, it being now 202,426. In 1821, the mortality was one to 39.9—*Port-Glasgow*, though not large, enjoys much of the shipping business of Glasgow. It is under the jurisdiction of that city, and is situated on the southern shore of the frith of Clyde, 3 miles E. from Greenock.

Paisley.] This town in size and commercial importance, ranks the third in Scotland. It is situated on the White Cart, between 2 and 3 miles S. of the Clyde, and nearly 7 miles W. of Glasgow. The Old Town stands on a rising ground on the W., and the New Town on a plain on the E. bank of the Cart; a communication is maintained between them by 3 bridges. In 1488 Paisley was erected into a burgh of barony; and in 1665 obtained a charter from the crown, upon which the jurisdiction of its magistrates is founded. The most remarkable of its public buildings is the *Abbey*, now in ruins,—a small portion excepted which is still occupied as the parish church. In this place is shown the monument of Margery Bruce, daughter of Robert Bruce king of Scotland, and wife of Walter great steward of Scotland, from whom the family of Stuarts descended, and who founded this abbey in 1160. Its revenues were very great, consisting of property in almost every part of the kingdom, with the tithes of 28 parishes. The *Chronicon Clugniense*, vulgarly called 'the Black Book of Paisley,' was a chronicle of Scottish history, agreeing, in almost every particular, with the *Scotichronicon* of Fordun, which is by many supposed to have been copied from it. The High Church, built upon the most elevated ground within the city, is a large and elegant fabric. The streets are well-paved and lighted; and the whole town has an air of neatness and cleanliness. Paisley is one of the most eminent manufacturing towns in Britain. Weaving, in particular, in all its branches, is here carried to an unexampled pitch of perfection. The manufactures of Paisley began to flourish immediately after the union of England and Scotland. The first goods manufactured were coarse linen-checks. These gave way to the manufactures of lawns, linens, gauze, and 'ounce thread.' In 1760, the manufacture of silk-gauze was introduced here, and was so successful that in a short time it was computed that 5000 weavers were employed in this department alone. The patterns and designs were originally composed in Paris; but it was not long until the Paisley manufacturers established draughtsmen of their own, and opened warehouses in London, Dublin, and even Paris itself. Spitalfields was obliged to yield the palm, and companies came down from England, by whose spirited enterprises, aided by the ingenuity of the Paisley draughtsmen, the manufacture prospered and increased to an extent which no town in Scotland could boast of. The introduction of the cotton manufacture depressed that of silk; the latter manufacture, however, after many fluctuations, has again

revived. In 1784, these manufactures gave employment to 26,484 persons in the town and neighbourhood of Paisley. Besides the manufactures we have enumerated, there are extensive tan-works, and soap and candle-works carried on in the town; and cotton-spinning, calico-printing, bleaching, &c. is carried on to a great extent in the neighbourhood. In 1755, the population of the town and abbey parish of Paisley was 6,799; in 1791, 24,592; in 1801, 31,179; in 1811, 36,963; and in 1831, 57,466, of whom the greater number are employed in silk and cotton-manufactures, or in trades dependent on them. There are about 6,000 looms in the town; but unfortunately the number of capitalists bears no proportion to the number of operatives, the cause of which is its proximity to Glasgow which engrosses the presence and capital of the manufacturers.

Dundee.] Dundee, now a town of very superior importance, is situated upon the north bank of the Tay, about 12 miles above its confluence with the ocean. It is, in general, recently built, regular, and clean. Dudhope castle, the seat of the celebrated Claverhouse, viscount of Dundee, has been converted into barracks capable of containing 800 men. The manufactures of Dundee are very considerable, and its commerce extensive. Its manufactures are linen of various kinds, canvass or sail-cloth, cotton-bagging, coloured thread, &c. In 1745, Dundee exported 10,000 pieces of osenaburghs; and in 1829 upwards of 100,000 pieces. The situation of Dundee is highly favourable for trade. The harbour has been rendered commodious, and is still receiving additional improvements which will render it equal to most in the kingdom. These improvements have been carrying on since August 1815 at an expense of £157,000; when completed, the harbour will be nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ mile in length, from E. to W.; the piers are from 50 to 80 feet broad. In 1829, 225 sail of shipping, whose total tonnage amounted to 27,150 tons, belonged to the place; and of these 112 sailed to America, the West Indies, the Baltic, &c. 104 were employed in the coasting-trade, and 9 in the whale-fishery. As a proof of the increase of trade in Dundee, it may be mentioned that in 1810-11 the custom duties amounted to £5,694 only, while in 1825-26 they amounted to £64,364. At the former period the excise duties amounted to £10,000, now they may be stated at £18,000 annually. In 1816, the shore-dues amounted to £4,411; and in 1829, to £10,134. Dundee was erected into a royal burgh by William the Lion. It is governed by a provost, 4 bailies, a dean of guild, a treasurer, and 13 counsellors, and joins with Forfar, St Andrews, Cupar, and Perth, in sending a member to parliament. Its population in 1792 was 24,000; in 1801, 26,084; in 1811, 29,616; and in 1821, 30,575. Its population has since greatly increased.

Greenock.] Greenock, beautifully situated on the southern shore of the Firth of Clyde, about 22 miles from Glasgow, is a town of considerable size. The harbour is very commodious, and has lately been greatly improved. This town carries on an extensive commerce with all parts of the world. In 1728 the gross receipt of the customs at this port amounted to £15,231; in 1828 they amounted to £455,596. The municipal constitution of Greenock is particularly worthy of attention. Every proprietor of ground within the town has a vote in the election of the magistrates; the public accounts are always open to inspection; and it is the understood usage and practice that the magistrates cannot originate any application to parliament without having previously obtained the concurrence of a majority

of the electors publicly assembled. The population of Greenock in 1793 was 15,000; in 1801, 17,458; in 1811, 19,042; and in 1831, 27,571.

Aberdeen.] Aberdeen, the principal city of Scotland, north of the Forth, is a very fine city. It is divided into the New and Old towns. *Old Aberdeen*, situated on the river Don, about a mile from its efflux into the sea, was constituted a bishopric and city by the translation hither of the Episcopal see of Morthlac, in the county of Banff, previous to the year 1153. We have already noticed its university or college. The government is vested in a provost, 3 bailies, a treasurer, and council, with the deacons of 6 incorporated trades. It is a royal burgh of barony, holding directly of the Crown. The population of the burgh in 1821 was 1,483; but including the parish of Old Machar, in which it stands, and in which many of its manufacturing establishments are situated, its population was at that period 18,312. *New Aberdeen*, about a mile distant from the former, is situated upon a rising ground on the banks of the Dee, at its efflux into the ocean; and from its size and importance—though it is only a royal burgh—has obtained the name of a city, without any special grant from any sovereign. Vast improvements have been made here of late years, both in the addition of streets, and in the style of building, which emulates that of the finest cities in the kingdom; but the expenses attending the various public improvements have been such as to create a deficiency in the burgh funds, of not less than £4,000 per annum, and eventually to place its whole property in the hands of trustees. Marischal College of New Aberdeen, like King's College of Old Aberdeen, from which it is quite distinct, is under the patronage of the crown. Trade and manufactures are actively prosecuted in this city. The latter consists chiefly of woollen, linen, and cotton, in all their different stages. Hosiery, coarse cloths, and carpeting, are likewise made. Coarse yarn is spun by machinery; and is partly exported in its original state, partly worked into canvas, sailcloth, and sheeting. One of the most extensive flax-spinning mills in the kingdom, stands on the river Don in the vicinity. There are also iron-founderies, and several large breweries. The salmon-fisheries on the rivers Dee and Don, produce an annual revenue of £10,000; and in the year ending July 1st 1821, there were exported 41,000 tons of stone, the value of which was upwards of £40,000. Aberdeen has a safe and spacious harbour, which has been improved at a great expense. We have already noticed its amount of tonnage. Its government is similar to that of New Aberdeen. Its population in 1831 was 32,912; which added to 25,107, the population of Old Aberdeen, makes a total of 58,019 for the city of Aberdeen in the widest acceptance of the term.

Perth.] The city of Perth is the most regularly built of any old town in the kingdom. At the south end of the Watergate, stood the palace of the Gowrie family, built by the Countess of Huntly, about the year 1520; and the scene of an attempt said to have been made upon James VI. in the year 1600, by the earl of Gowrie and his brother, commonly called *the Gowrie conspiracy*. The Bridge of Perth is reckoned one of the finest in the island. It was designed by Mr Smeaton, and executed under his direction. It consists of 10 arches, one of which is a land arch. The clear water way is 589 feet 9 inches; the extent of the arches, 730 feet 9 inches; the wing walls, 176 feet; the whole length of the bridge, 906 feet 9 inches; its breadth, 22 feet within the parapets. The piers are founded 10 feet below the bed of the river, upon piles of oak and beech; and the whole was completed at an expense of £26,000 sterling. Perth

is a place of great antiquity, and was, prior to the accession of the Stuart family, the usual residence of the Scottish monarchs. Many of the houses of the nobility still remain; but they have been modernized and converted into dwelling-houses. In early times Perth enjoyed a most extensive commerce, and its trade is still considerable. The salmon-fishery on the Tay may be estimated at £7000, from which the community of Perth draw about £1000. Linen and cotton-goods are, however, the staple manufacture, the annual value of which, for the town and neighbourhood, may be estimated at £300,000 sterling. There are also extensive manufactures of leather, boots, shoes, and gloves, the value of which may be £30,000 annually. Population, in 1831, 20,016.

Minor Towns.] *Inverness*, the capital of the North Highlands, is a handsome town with 14,32½ inhabitants, and has some commerce in hemp, flax, cotton, and woollen-goods.—*Elgin*, on the Lossie, in Morayshire, has the ruins of an elegant Gothic cathedral.—*Montrose*, at the mouth of the South Esk in Angus-shire, is a considerable trading and manufacturing town with 12,055 inhabitants. The principal manufactures are linen, yarn, thread, sheeting, and sailcloths.—*Brechin*, in Forfarshire, with 5,900 inhabitants, was formerly an episcopal see. It has an ancient Gothic Cathedral.—*Forfar*, a burgh in the county of the same name, has a population of 7,949 souls. It manufactures osenburghs and coarse linens.—*Cupar*, in Fifeshire, manufactures linen to a considerable value.—*St Andrews*, the seat of a university, was formerly a magnificent town, but is now greatly decayed. Its population in 1831 was 5621.—*Kirkcaldy*, in the shire of Fife, with a population of 503½ souls, is a small burgh which suffered severely in the civil war and from subsequent events. It is now reviving, and conducts a considerable coasting-trade, besides having several manufactories of linen, leather, &c.—*Dunfermline* is a town of great antiquity, occupying an eminence about two miles and a half north of the Firth of Forth; it contains the remains of the most celebrated abbey in Scotland, which was of such extent, that Matthew of Westminster affirms it would have accommodated in his time three sovereign princes with all their retinue. Malcolm III. is usually understood to have founded this monastery, and is said to have transferred the place of the sepulchre of the Scottish kings hither, from the island I-colum-kill. In February 1818, while preparing for building a new church, the tomb of king Robert the Bruce was accidentally discovered here. Dunfermline is now famous principally for its manufacture of table linen, which is here carried on more extensively than in any other part of the United Kingdom. Its population in 1831 was 17,068 souls.—*Stirling*, has been compared to the old town of Edinburgh in miniature. The castle gives it an air of majesty, and the prospect from the castle-hill along the banks of Forth is uncommonly beautiful. Carpets and cotton-goods are here manufactured. The population in 1831 was 8340.—*Falkirk*, in the shire of Stirling, is a town of considerable importance, having a large market, besides three great trysts in the year. Its population in 1831 was 12,743.—*Linlithgow*, the county town of the shire of the same name, has a great weekly market. Its palace, now in ruins, was one of the noblest of the royal residences in Scotland.—*Haddington*, which is a county-town of very great antiquity, with a population of 5,883 souls, and famous as having been the birth-place of the reformer John Knox, has a weekly corn-market on Friday, till lately reckoned the greatest in Scotland.—*Kelso* is a beautiful town situated on the confluence of the Teviot and Tweed in Roxburgh-shire.—

Jedburgh in Roxburghshire is principally celebrated for its fine old abbey. —*Hawick* in the same shire has a good weekly market, and an important tryst for the sale of cattle. It is prettily situated at the confluence of the Slitridge with the Teviot. —*Dumfries*, a town of 11,606 inhabitants, is beautifully situated upon the banks of the Nith. —*Ayr*, the principal town of the south-west of Scotland, is situated on the banks of the river Ayr. Its population in 1831 was 7606 souls. Here are manufactures of soap and leather; a great quantity of coal is exported from this place to Ireland. —*Irvine*, in the county of Ayr, has a considerable traffic in coals; and manufactures ropes, carpets, and cotton goods. —*Kilmarnock* is a large manufacturing town in Ayrshire, containing 18,093 inhabitants, and conducting a large trade in carpets, serges, and other woollen cloths, and in saddlery, leather, &c. —The village of *Moffat* in Dumfries-shire is celebrated for its mineral wells; and is esteemed the most healthy village in Britain. —*Lanark*, the county-town of Lanarkshire, with a population of 7,672 souls, is neatly built. The cotton-mills, at a place in the neighbourhood called *New Lanark*, are well-known. —Where the Leven enters the firth of Clyde, stands *Dumbarton*, the chief town of the county of the same name. It is remarkable for its romantic insulated castle, which, before the invention of artillery, was deemed impregnable. The principal manufacture is glass.

CHAP. X.—THE HEBRIDES, ORKNEY, AND SHETLAND ISLANDS.

I.—HEBRIDES, OR WESTERN ISLES.

THE Hebrides, or *Æbuda*, were little known to ancient geographers. They lie between 55° 30' and 58° 28' N. lat.; and 4° 52' and 7° 40' W. long. from Greenwich, at unequal distances from the W. coast of Scotland. They are nearly 200 in number, of which about 87 are inhabited. Their superficial contents exceed 2,800 square miles, or 1,792,000 acres; and their total population may amount to 90,000 souls. Gaelic is almost exclusively the language of the Hebrides.

History.] Though the existence of the Hebrides was known to the Romans, yet nothing can be collected from their historical works relating to the history of these islands. From the ancient annals of Scotland it would appear that, in a remote period, they were thinly peopled by rude colonies, governed by independent chiefs. In the 8th century the Danes and Norwegians began to harass these islanders; and in the 9th century the king of Norway reduced them under his sway. The viceroys who governed these islands very frequently threw off their allegiance to Norway, and fierce struggles ensued. About the end of the 11th century the Hebrides were fully subdued by the Norwegians; and they remained a tributary province of their kingdom, until ceded to Scotland after the defeat of Haco at Larga, in Ayrshire. The restless and ruthless chiefs, however, occasionally united in invading and plundering the western districts of Scotland, until the reign of James III. when the power of these 'lords of the isles'—as they were commonly called—was finally broken, and the islands forced to allegiance.

Distribution.] The islands of Bute and Arran, with their small dependencies, form a distinct county. The other Hebrides are attached to the

shires of Argyle, Inverness, Ross, and Cromarty. The total superficial extent of those belonging to

Argyleshire is	785 square miles.
Inverness-shire	1,035
Ross and Cromarty	561
Shire of Bute	215
Total	2,596

The Hebrides are divided into the *Outer* and *Inner Hebrides*. The latter lying along and nearest to the shore, are daily becoming more known. Beyond these, and separated from them by a channel varying in breadth from 15 to 40 miles, are extended the Outer Hebrides, forming a range of islands and islets, of all forms and dimensions, from conical to flat, and from the diameter of 3 or 4 miles to that of a few yards.

Physical Features.] A great portion of these islands is mountainous. The eastern parts are generally low and swampy, and there the coasts are rugged, but rarely precipitous. They are greatly indented by lochs and creeks. Along the whole of the eastern coast, there are excellent harbours and anchorages; the western coasts—with one or two exceptions—present very few safe harbours. The predominant soil is peat, which upon the mountains occurs only in patches; but in the lower grounds covers large tracts, and to a great depth. The vegetation of this soil consists principally of heath, carices, and eriophora, with lichen and mosses. They may be said to be destitute of wood, unless in that term we include the ligneous vegetables and willows. Perhaps the most singular feature in some of these islands is the astonishing number of lakes which they contain; but these lakes rather impart gloom than beauty to the landscape. Their sullen dark brown waters present the idea of unfathomable depth, and no difference is in general exhibited between the vegetation on their margin and that of the surrounding tracts of heath. Hardly any of the numerous streams deserve the name of rivers. The soil of the western side of these islands is greatly superior to that of the eastern, and vegetation there exhibits great richness and beauty. The climate is generally characterized by dampness. Spring commences about the end of March; it is not until the end of May, however, that the green livery of summer fairly supercedes the grey and brown tints of the winter herbage. From the beginning of July to the end of August is the summer; October terminates the autumnal season. Dreadful tempests sometimes occur during the winter. After a continued gale of westerly wind, the Atlantic rolls in its enormous billows upon the western coasts, dashing them with inconceivable fury upon the headlands, and in some places presenting a magnificent spectacle of terrific ranges of breakers extending for miles.

Bute.] Bute, or *Rothesia*—which, along with Arran, Inchmarnock, and the greater and lesser Cumbrae isles, forms a county—is situated in the mouth of the Firth of Clyde, and is separated by a narrow channel from Argyleshire. Its form is oblong, extending 16 miles in length, from N.W. to S.E.; it is nowhere above 5 miles in breadth, and contains a superficial area of about 29,000 acres. The climate is of course very moist; but the temperature is so mild that it has been compared to the southern parts of England. There are 6 or 8 small lakes on the island. The surface is an intermixture of level and hilly ground, the highest part rising only 780 feet above the sea. The northern part is elevated and rocky, and about a fourth part is considered irrecalmable by the plough, but the remainder is in general good, and well cultivated. There are several indications that the sea anciently rose much higher on the shores of this island than it does at present. Fishing is here prosecuted so successfully that 50,000 barrels of herrings have been sometimes exported from Rothsay in a year. An extensive establishment for spinning cotton has been established near Rothsay, which gives employment to a great number of hands—There is only one town on the island, *Rothsay*, on the N.E. coast, a royal burgh, which gives the title of duke to the heir apparent to the British throne; but there are one or two villages, which are well-built and thriving. A number of good roads have been made on this island; and by means of steam-boats on the Clyde, it communicates with Glasgow commonly many times in one day. The most remarkable monument of antiquity is Rothsay castle, once a royal residence, but

now in ruins, having been burnt by Argyle during the commotions in 1685. The most delightful spot in the island is Mount Stuart, the family seat of the Marquis of Bute. The population in 1891 was 6,599 souls.—*Inchmarnock* is an island on the western coast of Bute, about a mile in length.—The *Cannore* or *Cinnore* are two islands in the mouth of the Clyde, opposite to the E. coast of Bute, and separated from Ayrshire by a narrow channel called *Fairley Road*. Population, 675.

Arran.] *Arran*, or *Arr-ain*, i. e. 'the island of mountains,' is styled *Glenis* in the Itinerary of Antonine. It is of an irregular oval form, and is situated in the Firth of Clyde, between Kintyre and the county of Arr. Its length, from N. to S. is about 50 miles; and it is from 8 to 11 in breadth; containing a superficial area of 164 square miles, or 105,814 acres; of which about 14,491, composed of light friable mould, and lying chiefly along the shore, are cultivated. The surface presents extensive moors, lofty mountains, and profound valleys. Of the mountains, Goatfell rises, according to trigonometrical measurement, 2,840 feet above the sea, and that almost from the coast, which greatly heightens the apparent elevation of this sublime mountain to the eye of the spectator. On the coast are two good harbours, Lamlash on the S.E. and Lochran'na on the N. which is accessible with every wind. Shoals of salmon, herring, and white fish, frequent the shores: and at least 200 fishing vessels belong to the island. It is now intersected by good roads; and the whole of the cultivated lands are inclosed and subdivided. About 1000 head of cattle are annually exported to the mainland, and a considerable quantity of kelp is manufactured. A few red deer find shelter among the mountains; black cock, and other species of game, are plentiful. Adders are said to be very numerous. The whole island is divided in property betwixt the families of Hamilton and Fullerton; one of the hereditary titles of the Duke of Hamilton being Earl of Arran. It contained 6,541 inhabitants in 1891; but the population presses so much on the means of subsistence that emigration is frequently resorted to by the natives.—At the S.E. corner of Arran is the small isle of *Pladda*.—Lamlash harbour is covered by *Holy Isle*, which contains about 464 acres, partly arable.

Gigha.] *Gigha* is a low island, 7 miles long and 1 to 2 and a half broad, partly rocky and partly arable, divided from the peninsula of Cantyre by a channel 3 miles and a half in breadth. Its superficial extent is 5000 Scottish acres, of which 1500 are arable. Oats, barley, and potatoes, are the chief articles of crop, of which, together with cattle, kelp, linen yarn, and whisky, there is an annual exportation. On the western shore, which is bold and rocky, there are two remarkable caves. One of these was originally 190 feet long; but at present, a part of it only is covered. The other cave is 70 feet long, 30 broad, and 40 high. At the south end of the island, there is a subterraneous passage 133 feet long, into which the sea runs. About the middle of it, there is an aperture 8 feet long and two broad; and near the end, there is another 20 feet long and four broad. When there is a surf, a perpetual mist issues from these apertures, accompanied with a loud noise. Population in 1891, 573.

Islay.] The island of Islay is situated about 12 miles from Knapdale, on the mainland, and forms part of the county of Argyll. It is of an irregular form; in length from N. to S. about 31, and in breadth from E. to W. about 24 miles. Its superficial extent is nearly 154,000 acres, of which one-seventh is in tillage. The coast is rugged, but has some good harbours, particularly that of Lochindaal on the S.W. coast. Two arms of the sea, Lochgruinart and Lochindaal, seem once to have divided Islay into two, the highest land between them being not more than 90 feet above high-water mark. There are between 80 and 90 fresh water-lakes on the island, covering altogether a space of 3,000 acres. The surface of the island is diversified with little hills, which rise to a mountainous height towards the N. and E. Agriculture is now conducted here after the most improved mode. The arable land is inclosed and drained, and produces good crops of barley, oats, pease, and flax. Wheat is likewise raised in considerable quantity, and excellent potatoes. Islay also exports some linen, and a few horses; but its staple is black cattle, which are in high estimation among the English graziers, who purchase annually about 3,000 head. The climate is moist, but upon the whole steady and healthy. Islay has mines of lead and copper. Manganese, cobalt, iron ore, barytes, emery, and quicksilver, have been found upon it, and inexhaustible pits of hard and soft marl occur in different parts. The population in 1891 was 12,171. The proprietor of Islay is Campbell of Shawfield.

Jura.] The island of Jura, which also forms part of the county of Argyll, is separated from Islay by the sound of Jura, a channel about one mile in breadth. It extends fully 26 miles in length, and is from 2 to 7 in breadth; containing about 84 square miles, or 53,760 acres, of which 4,000 are under tillage. It is the most rugged of all the western isles, being composed chiefly of huge rocks, heaped upon one another in the utmost disorder. The mountainous ridges occupy the middle of the island, extending its whole length, and increasing in height to the S.W. till they terminate in four similarly peaked mountains, two of which, standing close to each other, and seen at a great distance, are called the *Paps of Jura*. From the highest of these peaks a prospect magnificent beyond description is obtained; the isle of Skye and the isle of Man being seen at the same time, though distant from each other 220 miles. The west side of Jura is a dreary uninhabited region, intersected by numerous torrents. The population live on the E. side of the island, where are two fine harbours, that to the S. called the Harbour of Small Isles, the other Lowland Man's Bay. The whole of this side forms a pleasant scene; the coast being indented with bays, and the arable and pasture lands which spread out on the acclivity being terminated by huge rocky mountains, which form a romantic and sublime back-ground. The soil is thin, and the crops of oats, barley, potatoes, and flax, are of course very poor. Besides red deer, the mountains feed numerous flocks, of sheep and goats; grouse and black game are also plentiful. The only fruits found on the island are sloes and rowans. Iron ore and manganese are the principal minerals; slate is plentiful. There is only one village on the island, called Jura, and inhabited by a few fishermen. The climate is healthy. The Gaelic is the only spoken language. The population in 1891 was 1,964.

To the N. of Jura, in the sound between it and Scarba, lies the famous whirpool of *Coryvreckan*, so

called from a son of a king of Denmark who perished in it. The strait is about a mile broad, and the whirlpool is nearest the Scarba side. As the flood-tide enters the strait, the commotion of the sea increases, and it reaches its height about the fourth hour of the tide, when it throws up every thing from the bottom, and the roar of the rushing waters may be heard at the distance of 12 miles. At this period it is generally fatal to vessels to approach it.—*Scarba* is a small rocky island, of a circular form, about 3 miles in diameter, and inhabited by about 60 persons.

Colonsay and Oronsay.] To the W. of Jura is a small island called Colonsay, 7 miles in length, separated from Oronsay upon the S. by a narrow channel dry at low water, when both become one island. They contain about 9,000 Scots or nearly 11,300 English acres; their surface is rugged, but does not rise into mountains. The arable land constitutes somewhat less than one-half of the island, producing tolerable crops of barley and potatoes. On the shore is found coral, where also a considerable quantity of kelp is made. The population of both islands in 1821 was 904 souls.

Kildale and Balnakeigh.] Kildale, about 1 mile and a half in diameter, and Balnakeigh, are islets remarkable for their excellent slate quarries, about 5 miles N.N.W. of Scarba, and seven from the S.E. extremity of Mull. The Kildale Slate Company employ about 850 quarriers and day-labourers, who prepare for exportation 5,000,000 of slates annually. These may be manufactured of any dimension, from flags of three or four feet square, to the smallest size. The larger island of Skath lies betwixt Kildale and the mainland.

Lismore.] Lismore is a fertile island, nearly 10 miles long, and of an average breadth of 1 3/4ths. It runs from S.W.—where it is 3 and a half miles distant from Dowart point in Mull—to N.E. It was anciently the seat of the bishop of Argyll. Population in 1821, 1639.

Mull.] The island of Mull is separated from Lorn, in Argyllshire, by a channel called the Sound of Mull. It is in length 36 miles, and in average breadth about 12, but its extreme breadth is 30 miles, comprehending 224,000, acres, of which 3,000 are in tillage. Its general aspect is rugged and mountainous; the greater part of it exhibiting nothing but crags, heath, and swampy morasses. A considerable number of cattle are reared, of which the greater part are exported. The breed of sheep is esteemed good, and some attention has lately been paid to its improvement. The climate is more moist than is general even in the western parts of Scotland, and violent westerly winds frequently prevail; but the winter is, upon the whole, mild, frost and snow seldom continuing long. There are several small villages; Tobermory, a large village at the northern extremity of the island, was established in 1793 by the society for the encouragement of fisheries. Great part of Mull consists of whinstone. Basalts are common. White lava, very rarely seen, is found near Arca. Limestone, sandstone, and granite are plentiful, and coal has been discovered in several places. The shores afford various kinds of beautiful pebbles, and the ringing stone at Balphitriah has often been mentioned. Its length is 7 feet, its breadth 6 feet, and its depth 4 1/2 feet. Its colour is dull grey, and it is spotted with black mica. It is extremely hard, and when struck emits a sound like that of brass or cast iron. The population of Mull and adjoining islets in 1821 was 10,619 souls. The Duke of Argyll is the chief proprietor in Mull.

Staffa.] Staffa is a very small island, remarkable only for its singular basaltic caverns and columns. It lies about 15 miles W. from Mull. Its length is one mile; its breadth half as much; and its form irregular. On the S.E. coast, opposite to a convenient landing-place, there is a cave whose entrance, in the form of a Gothic arch, is bounded on the S. by basaltic columns inclining inwards like the ribs of a ship. This cave is called *Pingal's Cave*, and has been described in terms of rapture by every eminent traveller who has visited it: "The mind," says Sir Joseph Banks, "can hardly form an idea more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broken off to form it; between the angles of which a yellow stagnant matter has been exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and, at the same time, with a great deal of elegance; and, to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without, and the air is perfectly free from the damp and noxious vapours with which natural caverns in general abound." "How splendid," says Dr Uno Von Troll, in his Letters on Iceland, "do the porticoes of the ancients appear, in our eyes, from the ostentatious magnificence of the descriptions we have received of them; and with what admiration are we seized on seeing even the colonnades of our modern edifices! But, when we behold the *Cave of Pingal*, formed by nature, in the isle of Staffa, it is no longer possible to make a comparison, and we are forced to acknowledge, that this piece of architecture, formed by nature, far surpasses that of the Louvre,—that of St Peter at Rome,—all that remains of Palmyra and Pometum,—and all that the genius, the taste, and the luxury of the Greeks were capable of inventing!" "I have seen," continues St Fond, "many ancient volcanoes, and I have given descriptions of several superb basaltic causeways, and delightful caverns in the midst of lavas; but I have never found any thing which comes near to this, or can bear any comparison with it, for the admirable regularity of the columns, the height of the arch, &c., or for resemblance to the masterpieces of art; though art has had no share in its construction. It is, therefore, not at all surprising, that tradition should have made it the abode of a hero." The bottom of the cave is always filled with the sea, and can be entered with a boat, only when the water is completely calm. The following are the dimensions of the cave, according to Sir Joseph Banks:

	Feet.	Inch.
Length of the cave from the rock without	371	6
Do. do. from the pitch of the arch	250	0
Breadth of do. at the mouth	53	7
Do. of the cave at the farther end	90	0
Height of the arch at the mouth	117	6
Do. at the end	70	0

Depth of water at the mouth	18	0
Do. at the end	9	0
Height of the tallest columns on the right side of the entrance	45	0

The mass of which the roof is formed is 20 feet thick at its lowest parts. In the S. W. corner of the island there is another cave, not so deep or so lofty as Fingal's; and 6 or 7 more occur in other parts of the coast. Staffa may contain 300 acres.

Tyrie.] The island of Tyrie or Tlire is in length about 11 miles, and from 7 to 1 in breadth. Its distance from Mull is about 16 miles in a western direction. The surface, comprising about 15,000 acres, is lower and more level than is common among the Hebrides. About one-half is reckoned to be arable. In the interior are 24 small lakes. The principal crops are oats, potatoes, and some flax. From the trunks of large trees, which are found in every moss, wood appears to have been formerly abundant, though it is now totally wanting. The inhabitants employ themselves in fishing and making kelp. Limestone and ironstone are common, the former resembles marble, and takes a fine polish. This island has several monuments of antiquity. Its population in 1821 was 4,181 souls.

Coll.] The island of Coll, forming part of Argyshire, is 13 miles in length, and about 3 miles in breadth. The surface is rugged and rocky. Where any soil exists, it is so thin as to be unfit for the nourishment of any large plant. The extent of cultivated land is small, forming about one-eighth of the whole. Small lakes are numerous, and they contain trout and eels. No venomous reptiles are found in Coll. Cattle and kelp form the only articles of export. The inhabitants are, for the most part, employed in the fishery. There is a ferry betwixt Tyrie and Coll, and another betwixt Coll and Mull, but both are dangerous, on account of rapid currents and a heavy swell. Population in 1821, 1,364.

Rum.] The island of Rum or Ronin, is about 8 miles long, and contains nearly 34 square miles. This island is mountainous, and little of it has been cultivated. Many sheep are reared. The only harbour is that of Loch Skresort, upon the eastern side, which is commodious and extensive. Agates and rock-crystals are found upon the shore. Population, in 1821, 304.

Skye.] Skye, the most considerable of the Hebrides, extends along the W. coast of Ross-shire, from which it is separated by a broad channel, except at the S.E. extremity, where it nearly approaches the mainland. It lies between 57° and 57° 39' N. lat., and between 5° 39' and 6° 40' W. long. from Greenwich, being upwards of 45 miles from N. to S. and 12 to 22 from W. to E. It contains perhaps 342,400 English acres, of which 30,000 are arable; the rest, consisting of mountain and hill-pasture, lakes, morasses, rocks, and other waste lands, may amount to 479 square miles, deeply indented with inlets of the sea, so distributed that no spot in the island is four miles from salt water. The climate is mild, in proportion to its latitude and the height of the mountains, some of which are computed to be 3000 feet above the level of the sea; but the weather, on the whole, is not agreeable: for one half of the year is deluged with rain, and the air seldom continues long of the same temperature. The surface is very irregular. In several districts are bleak elevated ridges of hills covered with heath; and below are valleys watered by rapid streams, fresh-water lakes, morasses in which trunks of trees are found, gentle sloping declivities, and level fields. The bare rocks often appear near the summits of the hills; brown heath darkens their declivities; the morasses are covered with gray moss; and spots of lively verdure are thinly interspersed. Most of the hills in the central and southern quarters were anciently clothed with wood; but little forest-timber now remains in the island, except on the S. E. coast of Sleat, where there is still some natural wood. There is every diversity of soil, except pure sand. The quantity of grain raised in favourable seasons, is reckoned not to exceed 9000 bolls; 500 tons of kelp are annually manufactured; and 3000 cattle are exported. The promontories or headlands, are rocks of immense height. In some parts are basaltic columns, resembling those of Staffa. About a mile S. of Talyaker, on the S. W. coast, there is a high hill, having in front a series of basaltic columns, above 20 feet in height, and consisting mostly of five angles. At a small distance from them on the slope of a hill, is a tract of several roods formed of the tops of columns, close set, and exhibiting a reticulated series of amazing beauty. There is abundance of freestone, limestone, granite, with some veins of marble, and appearances of lead and iron-ore in various places. In the parish of Salzort there is a perpendicular rock or obelisk about 300 feet in circumference at the base, and terminating in a sharp point, perhaps 300 feet in height. Many curious grottoes, Druidical monuments, and ancient forts are found in this island. There are several agreeable seats and villages planted on the coasts and borders of lakes. Opposite to Hualah, the northern promontory, there is a rapid current: and at no great distance are the dangerous rocks of *Sker-na-muik*.—The low district of Sleat or S. E. peninsula of Skye, is divided from Inverness-shire by the Inner Sound, the narrowest part of which is called the Kyle. The population of Skye was returned at 20,897 in 1821: they dwell, for the most part, in scattered villages, as convenience or situation invites. Loch Bracadale forms a beautiful land-locked harbour, abounding in safe creeks and islets. Skye is divided into 7 parishes, and belongs chiefly to two proprietors,—the laird of Macleod and lord Macdonald. Contiguous to Skye, there are many small islands dependent upon it.—*Fladda*, an inconsiderable island, 5 miles N.N.W. of Hualah promontory, near the northern extremity of Skye, was formerly inhabited. In its neighbourhood are six or seven rocks, one of which is about 300 paces in circuit, and flat on the summit, with a deep well in it.—*Fladda* is a little verdant isle on the N.E. coast of Trotterness.—*Rona*, a rugged island, affording pasture for black cattle, is 6 miles from north to south, and 2 in breadth, at the north extremity of Raasay, between Skye and Ross-shire. Its shores are rocky and dangerous.—*Raasay* is a rough, rocky, and indifferently fruitful island, 15 miles long and 1 to 4 broad, separated from the east coast of Skye by a narrow sound. It contains 3½ square miles, occupied by about 900 inhabitants. The whole island belongs to Mr Macleod of Raasay, who is

also proprietor of Rona and Fladda.—*Scalpay and Pabbay*, south of Rannay, yield tolerable pastures. The former, somewhat oval, is 3 miles long, and 1 to 2 broad, rising gradually on all sides from the shore; the latter is flat, a mile in diameter, and of a good soil.

Bearra.] This island, forming, with a number of smaller islands, a parish of Inverness-shire, is about 8 miles long, by 4 in breadth. It is mountainous, but produces tolerable crops of oats. On the N.E. it has a good harbour. The population of the parish, in 1821, was 2,303 souls. The whole extent of the cluster of islands amounts to about 30 square miles.

South Uist.] South Uist lies between 57° 5' and 57° 21' N. lat. being upwards of 80 miles from N. to S. and 4 to 8 in breadth; containing 127 square miles, including Erickay an islet on the south coast, and 10 square miles of fresh-water lakes. The general aspect is mountainous and barren. Herla or Eacela, a mountain on this island, probably exceeds 3000 feet in height. One-fifth only of the whole is cultivated, and that chiefly on the W. side, which shelves downwards to the sea, and terminates in a sandy beach. The soil of the arable tract is light and sandy; farther inland, there is a continued chain of swamps and lakes, to the eastward of which are steep and lofty hills, covered with heath and scanty pastures. The products of this island are scanty crops of bear, oats, and potatoes. South Uist was broader formerly than it is at present. On the west coast, ruins of houses are seen within water-mark. Indeed along the western shore of all the islands in those parts, there is a gradual encroachment of the sea, occasioned by the perpetual drifting of sand. In many places, vestiges of buildings, inclosures, churches and burying-grounds, are now covered with water; hence it is evident, that an extent of the western coast, by some violent concussion, or a gradual process of nature, has become the bed of a part of the Atlantic ocean. The population of South Uist in 1821 was 6,038 souls.

North Uist.] This island is separated from the S. W. coast of Harris by a channel 9 miles broad. Its form is very irregular. The length is about 16 miles, the breadth from 6 to 12 miles. Including its numerous islets, and several fresh-water lakes, it comprehends an area of 118 square miles. The climate is extremely variable. The general aspect of the island is cheerless and gloomy. A dark, barren, heathy surface, swelling into hills of no great altitude, composes the greater part of it. The cultivated tract is limited to a strip of low, sandy soil, about 1 mile and a half in breadth, along the west and north coasts. The northern shore is inaccessible to vessels of any burden, on account of rocks, shoals, and breakers. The eastern coast is an entire craggy precipice, except where it is intersected by inlets of the sea, which form safe and commodious bays and harbours. The most northerly harbour on that coast is Cheesbay, where vessels may ride in safety at all seasons of the year. In Loch-na-Maddy, which extends five or six miles inland, vessels find good anchorage, and an easy outlet, with almost any wind. There are many Druidical temples and Danish forts in North Uist and its attendant islands, which compose one parish, with a population of nearly 5000 souls.

Harris and Lewis.] This island, the most northerly of the outer Hebrides, is divided by two arms of the sea into two districts, Lewis and Harris; it is in length 82 miles, running S.W. and N.E. and, upon an average, 11 broad. The southern district, Harris, is entirely mountainous.—Lewis is comparatively level. In what is called the Forest of Harris there are scenes hardly surpassed in grandeur by any part of Scotland. Loch Langavat is the largest Hebridean lake. It is upwards of 10 miles in length, and singularly tortuous. The soil is sandy, and far from being sterile, but is cultivated with little skill. Fishing is prosecuted on the coast with much success, and the natives are in general expert seamen. There are several excellent harbours on the W. coast of Lewis. Stornoway is the chief town; and there are several villages. Population, in 1821, 16,140 souls.

St Kilda.] The most remote of the Scottish western islands, lies about 60 miles to the W. S. W. of Harris, which is the nearest land. Its length is about 3, its breadth 2, and its circumference somewhat more than 9 miles. The whole coast is rocky, and on all sides it is inaccessible, except at a bay on the S.E. whence a narrow and steep path leads to the summit of the island. Eighty acres of a mossy but fertile soil are under tillage, yielding some grain, potatoes, and rye; the remainder affords pasture for black cattle and sheep. There are four or five hills, the highest of which is Congara, about 1800 feet above the level of the sea. Oats and barley are the only kinds of grain which are sown; but potatoes have been lately introduced, and garden-herbs are now coming into use. A considerable number of sheep are reared; but the chief occupations of the natives of St Kilda are fishing and catching of wild fowl, in the latter of which they are uncommonly expert. The habitations of the St Kildians are built of alternate courses of freestone and turf, laid without lime. The roofs are flat, because were they steep, the frequent storms would undoubtedly overset them.

II. THE ORKNEY ISLANDS.

THE Orkney Islands, or *Orcades*, lie between 58° 3' and 59° 45' N. lat. and 2° 0' and 3° 14' W. long. from Greenwich, being separated from Caithness by the Pentland or Pictland Frith, a straight about 11 miles in breadth. Twenty-nine of those islands are inhabited, and 38 are holms, inferior in size, and appropriated to pasturage. There are several *skerries*, or sharp and rugged rocks, overflowed at high-water, with scarcely any soil for the production of vegetables. The Orkneys are disjoined from one another by sounds, or firths, from 1 to 5 miles broad. From the S.W. to the N.E. point of the group, the distance is not less than 70 miles, and their breadth is upwards of 40. In general, the east and north coasts are low. The

western coasts, more elevated, terminate in bold and steep cliffs, exhibiting a thousand different shapes, which form a scene highly picturesque and interesting. Appearances justify the conclusion, that anciently they were united, and perhaps composed a portion of the mainland of Scotland.

History.] The first earl of Orkney was created by Harold, king of Norway, who, having conquered the Shetland and Orkney Islands in the 9th century, created Ronald, one of his faithful followers, earl of Orkney and Shetland. The earldom was then unfettered by any homage to a superior; but a tribute was afterwards levied from the earl and people of Orkney for the murder of one of the king's sons, and the earl having himself discharged this, received the lands of the proprietors in pledge for their share of the sum. The dissensions from that period until 1262 among the earls of Orkney, present a pretty history of themselves. They frequently took part with the Norwegians in their expeditions against Britain, and seem at one time to have had possession of Caithness. Harold, one of the earls of Orkney, even had the boldness to answer a competitor supported by the king of Norway and William king of Scotland, "that he would enter into no negotiation, the object of which was to diminish his own power or influence." About 1330, the Norwegian male line of earls was extinguished, in the person of Magnus the fifth. His daughter married Malis, earl of Strathearn, whose daughter married William St Clair, baron of Roslin. His son, Henry, claimed the earldom of Orkney and Shetland, in 1379, in right of his grandmother. James I. was accompanied by Henry, the second earl of Orkney, at the time he was taken prisoner by Henry IV. in 1405. The Scots having omitted to pay the tribute due to Norway, for the conquered lands which had been restored to them, a claim was made upon them by Christiern, and a war would likely have ensued, had they not referred matters to the decision of Charles VII. of France, who recommended a match betwixt the son of James II. and the princess of Denmark. This arrangement was gone into, and James III. married that lady. With her he was to receive a dowry of 60,000 florins, for 50,000 of which he was to hold Orkney as a security, and the other 10,000 was to be paid down; but as Christiern was unable to raise the latter, he got Shetland as a pledge for that also. This happened in the year 1468. Two years after this treaty, earl William St Clair, the grandson of the first earl of that name, resigned to James III. his right to the earldom of Orkney and Shetland, having received an adequate compensation. Thus terminated a title which had subsisted for nearly 600 years.

These islands were not long attached to the crown. During the reign of James V. in the year 1530, they were granted in feu to James, earl of Murray, and natural brother to the king. On his death they passed into the hands of the earl of Huntly; afterwards into those of lord Robert Stewart, natural brother to Mary, queen of Scots, and his heirs-male, with reversion to the crown. Bothwell, Mary's paramour, was afterwards appointed duke of Orkney, in 1566. In 1580, lord Robert Stewart prevailed with James VI. again to create him earl of Orkney. These islands were once more annexed to the crown in 1591; and in 1600, Patrick Stewart, son of earl Robert, obtained a new grant of them in his favour. He built Scalloway castle, in Shetland. During this period, however, Denmark appears never to have relinquished its title to Orkney. It is stated that when queen Margaret bore a son and heir to James III. her father, Christiern, was so gratified, that he relinquished to James every claim to Orkney and Shetland; but this seems not to be ascertained. Earl Patrick was

executed at Edinburgh, 6th June, 1614, according to Edmonston, "for acts of cruelty and oppression." From this period these islands were farmed out by government until 1643, when Charles I. granted them to the earl of Morton, who was deprived of them by the usurpation of Cromwell. One of the earls of Morton afterwards obtained them in 1662, but this grant was declared null and void in 1669, when the islands were erected into a stewarty. They were afterwards let in short leases to farmers, until the reign of queen Anne, when, in 1707, James earl of Morton obtained a new grant for himself and his heirs, subject to a feu-duty of 500*l*. This was confirmed in 1742, and rendered irredeemable by an act of parliament. He also obtained a lease of the droits of the admiralty, and a lease of the rents of the bishopric. In 1776 earl Morton passed his right by sale to Sir Laurence Dundas, whose descendant, Lord Dundas, at present possesses them. To him, as to his predecessor, belongs the patronage of all the churches in Shetland, and nearly all those in Orkney.

Climate.] The climate is variable and unhealthy. The S.W. and S.E. winds are the most lasting and violent; the former accompanied with heavy rains. About the middle of June a cold wind, accompanied with snow and hail, often blows from the N. for two or three weeks, and checks the progress of vegetation. When this season is past, the wind changes, and warm showers succeed. Thunder and lightning are most common in winter. The aurora borealis is more frequent and more splendid in this than in most other regions.

Soil.] The elevated tracts present a bog soil of a black colour, which powerfully retains moisture. In the plains and valleys, sand, clay, and gravel, are combined in great variety. The soil in general is shallow, lying on a bed of rock, and tolerably fertile. The islands contain about 384,000, acres divided perhaps in the following proportions: viz. heath and moss, occupied as common, 294,000 acres,—green pastures, occupied as common, 30,000,—infield pasture and meadow, 30,000,—arable, including gardens, 24,000,—total productive land, 84,000; houses, roads, walls, ditches, 2000,—fresh water, 4000. The old system of agriculture still prevails; nevertheless, the country does more than support its inhabitants.

Mineralogy.] In these island the mineralogist will find nothing interesting. The northern isles, *i. e.* those situate north of the mainland, contain sandstone of different sorts, schistose clay, and limestone, with some appearance of basalt. There are two veins of lead ore in Shapinshay. In the southern isles similar strata are found. Hoy contains some iron-ore, and traces of other minerals in small quantities have been discovered. Upon the shores of the islands many curious marine shells are found.

Population.] That the population at an early period, was considerable and powerful, appears from the avidity with which the alliance of the earls of Orkney was courted. The enumeration of the inhabitants of Orkney and Shetland, in 1811, amounted to 46,163, and in 1821 to 53,124. It is not likely that the population will rapidly increase, as the young men, finding no employment at home, generally go abroad in quest of it; and many young women likewise migrate to the south country, where they engage in service, or are married and never return.

Manners and Customs.] The inhabitants may be divided into three classes:—1st, the gentry or proprietors of the land, whose manners are not materially different from those of the same rank in other parts of the kingdom. The 2^d class are tradesmen and shopkeepers, residing chiefly in the two principal towns, and a few only in the country. Those in the towns

are the most respectable and industrious. The country tradesmen have generally little farms, attention to which occupies their spare time. The 3d class, composed of farmers, servants, and cottagers, make about 8-10ths of the whole population. Many of this class are ignorant, wedded to old customs, and averse from improvement. Extremely credulous and superstitious, they believe in witches, fairies, &c. and are addicted to charms and incantations; but they are hospitable to strangers and respectful to their superiors. Their religion generally is presbyterianism.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The manufacture of coarse woollen cloth, stockings, and blankets, has of late fallen off, but the linen manufacture which was introduced about the year 1747, is in a flourishing state: in some years upwards of 50,000 yards have been stamped. The linen-yarn spun in the islands considerably exceeds 100,000 spindles, 50,000 of which are exported to Montrose. The kelp manufacture, which, previous to the recent introduction of Spanish barilla into our soap and glass manufactories, gave employment to a great proportion of the population, is now nearly annihilated. The manufacture of straw plait has been established here, and is in a very thriving state. The inhabitants of these islands, for want of capital and industry, have not, to any considerable extent, embarked in foreign trade. Their principal exports are beef, pork, butter, tallow, hides, salt fish, oil, feathers, linen, yarn, kelp, with small quantities of grain in years of plenty. Their imports are wood, iron, flax, coal, sugar, spirits, wine, snuff and tobacco, flour, soap, leather, hardware, broad cloth, printed linens and cottons. The annual exports have sometimes been estimated at £40,000, and the imports as £36,000. Little attention is bestowed on the fisheries, which might be very productive.

Pomona.] Pomona or Mainland, is an island of a very irregular form, situated in the middle of the group, about 5 leagues from the north coast of Caithness. It is about 25 miles in length; its breadth from N. to S. is various, being in some places 16, in others 9, and at Kirkwall not exceeding 3 miles. It is so much intersected by arms of the sea, as to have 140 miles of coast. The whole extent may be 312 square miles, or 135,680 acres, of which about 14,000 are rudely cultivated. The general appearance of the country is bleak and barren, covered with heath, destitute of trees, and encumbered with hills, marshy swamps, and fresh-water lakes. A low ridge of hills rises from the eastern extremity of the island, and stretches westward. In many places are the ruins of ancient buildings, called *Pict's houses*, of a conical form, 50 to 100 feet in diameter. *Kirkwall*, by the Danes called *Kirkivog*, is a small, well built, royal borough, and carries on a considerable trade. It consists chiefly of one narrow street, a mile in length, on the east side of a bay of the same name, in a confined strath reaching southward to the bay of Scalps, 176 miles N. of Inverness. The cathedral, or church of St Magnus, is a Gothic building founded A. D. 1139, and afterwards enlarged. The bishopric was founded at the close of the 6th century. There is a commodious harbour at the bottom of the bay, open to the north; though some seafaring people prefer Laganess bay to the eastward. *Stronness* is a village, and a place of some trade, on a bay of the same name, at the S.W. end of the island, opposite to the north extremity of Hoy. Its safe and commodious bay, or harbour, is a great resort for shipping.

Islands South of the Mainland.] *Grimsay* is a flat and fertile island, $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile in length, near the northern extremity of Hoy.—*Hoy* and *Waa* at low ebb form one island about 14 miles from N.W. to S.E. and from 1 to 5 in breadth; separated from Stronness by a narrow channel. Hoy, the northern division, and the highest land in the whole islands, is almost entirely occupied by three hills ranged in the form of a triangle, the N.E. one of which is about 1200 feet in height: near its summit, during the summer months, a splendid object may be observed at a great distance, resembling a stream of water gliding over the surface of a rock, and reflecting the solar rays.—*Risay* is an inconsiderable islet, at a small distance from the east coast of Hoy.—*Faray* is another little island of the same description.—*Canay*, is a small island, inhabited by two or three families, 2 miles N.E. of Risay, and 3 from the south coast of Pomona.—*Fletay* is 3 miles and a half in length, and 1 and a half in breadth, with several bold cliffs on the coast.—*South Ronaldsay*, the most southerly island of any note of the Orkneys, is 8 miles from N. to S. and from 2 to 5 in breadth. It has, in general, a mountainous aspect, but contains a considerable portion of arable land miserably cultivated. It has three bold headlands composed chiefly of sandstone; viz. Burwick-head, Halcrow-head, and Stowa-head, each of which may be 250 feet perpendicular above the level of the sea. *Swaenay*, or *Swinae*, is a barren island, about 1 mile and a half long, 4 miles W. from Ronaldsay, of which it is separated by a branch of Pentland Frith. Though at new and full moon the tide runs against this island, at the rate of 9 miles an hour, yet there are few instances of wrecks on it; for the resistance of the rocks to the violence of the tide, produces

a current that runs along the shore to each end of the island.—*Pentland Skerry*, in the mouth of the Frith, is one of two rocks or islets, 5 miles N.E. of Duncaebay-head, and almost equidistant from Caithness and Orkney: a light-house has been built here with accommodation for a family.—*Burray*, an island of light soil, on argillaceous sandstone, is of a very irregular form, 4 miles long, and 1 and a half broad, separated from the north coast of South Ronaldshay by a strait called Watersound, a mile broad, and from the S.E. point of the mainland by Holm Sound, 3 miles in breadth. It exceeds most of the islands in respect of convenience of situation and fertility.—*Copinskey*, or Coupmansee, i. e. 'merchant's isle,' 1 mile and a half long, and 1 broad, inhabited by two or three families, lies about 3 miles E. of Pomona, and contains some good corn-land and pasture.

Islands North of the Mainland.] *Dumsey* is an agreeable little island, scarcely a mile in circuit, in the bay of Frith, under the hill of Wideford, three or four miles N.N.W. of Kirkwall.—*Shapinsay* an island of an irregular form, composed chiefly of sandstone, is 7 miles in length. It consists of about 10 square miles, and contains upwards of 800 inhabitants.—*Stronsay* is a low island, of a very irregular figure, deeply indented by the sea, and cut almost into three distinct islets, 5 miles N.E. of Shapinsay, and 6 from the N.E. extremity of Pomona. It is 7 miles long.—*Eday* is an island consisting chiefly of moss, heath, and hills, 4 miles N. of Shapinsay, and 3 N.W. of Stronsay. It is about 8 miles long and 3 broad, containing upwards of 700 inhabitants. In favourable seasons, it affords grain sufficient for its inhabitants.—*Farray* is a tolerably fertile island, 2 miles long, and 1 broad, about 2 miles W. of Eday. These two islands are surrounded by rapid tides.—*Sanday*, situated 3 miles N. of Stronsay, is an island of an irregular figure, and a light soil: it extends about 13 miles from N.W. to S.E. and is from 1 to 3 in breadth: it consists of about 19 square miles, or 12,100 acres, of which 1800 are in constant tillage, and tolerably fruitful; and contains about 2000 inhabitants. On the western extremity are hills about 300 feet high; but the rest of the island is low and flat. It yields some grain, of an inferior quality, for exportation. Large shoals extend a great way from the coast; on which many vessels have been shipwrecked. In January 1803, a light-house was erected in the vicinity of Sanday, 100 feet above the level of the sea, which displays a strong revolving light every other minute.—*North Ronaldshay* is a low flat island, divided from Sanday by a dangerous strait 2 or 3 miles in breadth, and is about 4 miles long, and 1 broad. About the year 1790, a light-house, 70 feet high, was erected on the N.E. point of this island.—*Westray*, an island in the form of a star, is 9 to 11 miles from S.E. to N.W. and 1 to 3 in breadth: it is surrounded by rapid tides and boisterous seas; and 3 miles N.W. of Eday, and 20 N. of Kirkwall. In its greatest length it forms a low ridge on the shores, and is gently elevated towards the middle. On the N.W. coast, there is very magnificent rocky scenery. The arable land and principal grass pastures are on the N.E., S., and S.W. shores. Though a large proportion of the land is capable of improvement, yet not the eighth part is cultivated. The corn is of an indifferent quality, but the pasture is tolerable.—*Eaglesay* is a low, fertile and pleasant island, 3 miles and a half in length, and 1 in breadth, 6 miles S. of Westray, and separated by a narrow strait, called Howa-sound, from the E. coast of Roway: it contains a small lake of fresh-water, a Gothic church, and upwards of 200 inhabitants. On account of its beauty and commodious situation, it was formerly the residences of the Douglasses and Monteiths, its proprietors, and sometimes of the counts and bishops. It was also the scene of the murder of St Magnus,—a tutelary saint of those islands. The soil is good, but indifferently cultivated.—*Roway*, an island 4 miles long, and 3 broad, containing about 800 inhabitants, is separated from the N.E. coast of the mainland by a strait 1 mile in breadth.—*Weir*, or *Vera*, 2 miles long, and 1 broad, is a low island of a triangular form, almost concealed from view by the high lands around it, and is divided from the south coast of Roway by Weir-sound.—*Gairsey*, or *Gerna*, 2 miles long, and 1 broad, lies 2 miles S. of Weir, between the E. coast of the mainland and Shapinsay. The greatest part of it consists of a conical hill. The only harbour is that of Millburn on the east coast.

III. THE SHETLAND ISLANDS.

THE islands of Shetland, by the Dutch called *Zetland*, and by the Danes *Yetland*, lie about 18 leagues N.E. of the Orkneys; between 59° 46' and 61° 11' N. lat. They are divided into 12 parishes, which in 1821 contained 26,145 inhabitants. Seventeen of the group are inhabited, the other smaller ones, called *Holms*, are appropriated to pasturage. These islands with the Orkneys, form one jurisdiction, and one county, which sends a representative to the British parliament; but hitherto the Orkney landowners have exercised the right of election for the shire exclusively.

Physical Features, &c.] The climate of the Shetland Islands is nearly the same with that of the Orkneys. During the summer months, the natives have frequent communication, and live in great hospitality; but, throughout the rest of the year, they have little intercourse with one another, being involved in fogs and darkness, and storms. In these islands there is great diversity of soil; but their general appearance is that of ruggedness and sterility. Some patches along the coasts, miserably cultivated, relieve the eye of the traveller; but no tree nor shrub is to be

seen. The western parts are peculiarly wild, dreary, and desolate; consisting of gray rocks, stagnant marshes and pools, broken and precipitous coasts, excavated into vast natural arches and deep caverns. There are, it is computed, 25,000 English acres of arable land, and about 23,000 of good meadow and pasture in Shetland; but this bears a very small proportion to the waste and uncultivated tracts. The implements of husbandry are of the rudest construction,—the domestic animals are of the smallest size,—farm-houses are, for the most part, wretched hovels,—and the roads, in general, are mere footpaths. The live stock of most importance is sheep, remarkable for the fineness of their wool; but the principal wealth of the islands consists in their fisheries. Sheep, wool, fish, feathers, black cattle, and butter, are the chief articles of export. Springs and rivulets abound. Freestone, limestone, slate and marl, are found in many places; and in Fetlar, iron-ore has been discovered, together with indications of copper.

History.] The period when the Shetland and Orkney islands were first peopled, is unknown. From the remains of Druidical temples, cairns, and cromlechs found there, it would appear that they were planted by the same Celtic people who colonized Britain. In the 10th century, Shetland and Orkney were subject to the king of Norway, and paid an annual tribute of 60 merks of gold. Their history from this period is blended with that of the Orkney islands already sketched.

Mainland.] Mainland, the chief of the Shetland Islands, is of a very irregular figure. The length is about 60 miles; its breadth, owing to the many inlets and bays upon the coast, is very unequal,—in some places 16 miles, in others much less. The interior is mountainous, and abounds in morasses. The coast is generally arable, but cultivated in a very wretched mode. The breed of horses is small, and distinguished by the name of *Shetland Ponies*. The breed of swine is likewise peculiar. The sheep are small; they yield wool of a fine quality, and many of them are reared for that purpose. Scarcely a tree is at present to be seen in the island, though it is supposed that the country must formerly have abounded in wood, as the trunks of large trees are often dug from the morasses. Limestone and slate are found, but the former is never used as manure. The inhabitants are hardy, and in some cases exhibit extraordinary ingenuity,—a circumstance always attendant on that state of society, when every individual is, in some degree, compelled to supply almost all his own wants. The chief occupation of the inhabitants, as of all the other islands, is fishing, for which their situation gives them many advantages. They manufacture woollen cloth and linen for their own use; and stockings of an excellent texture for exportation. Lerwick is the capital. It is situated on the E. coast, and is the rendezvous of the fishing vessels.

Minor Islands.]—*Yell*, sometimes denominated *Zell*, is about 29 miles in length; and in breadth about 12. The coast is rocky, but has many bays, which afford commodious harbours. The surface is not mountainous; but, except upon the coast, little of it is cultivated.

Unst, the most northern of the Shetland Isles, is of an irregular figure, 18 miles long, by 3 or 4 broad. This island can hardly be called mountainous, though it has several hills of considerable height. The average annual export of cured fish is said to be 80 tons.

Whalley is situated to the east of Mainland. It is 6 miles long, and 3 miles broad, with a rocky coast and a variegated surface, not unfertile. When approaching this island, the compass, by its unsteadiness, is said to indicate some magnetic quality in its rocks.

Bressay.] Eastwards, likewise, from Mainland, and south from Whalley, is situated Bressay, 4 miles in length, and 9 miles in breadth. The soil would be fertile were it properly cultivated; at present it affords good pasturage. This island furnishes slates of a good quality. Bressay Sound is a well-known harbour, the resort of many vessels employed in the northern fisheries.

Burra is 4 miles long, and 1 mile broad. It affords good pasturage, and might yield grain, but the inhabitants are wholly employed in fishing.

Fetlar, situated a little to the east of the north end of Mainland, is 4 miles long, and 3 and a half broad. The soil is fertile, affording, even with the culture common among these islands, tolerable crops of oats and barley. It is not deficient in minerals. Iron ore, of that kind called bog-ore, of a good quality, is plentiful. Copper-ore has been found, with asbestos and steatites. Garnets are sometimes discovered, and a little limestone has been found.

Papa-höer is situated to the west of Mainland. Its length is 2 miles, its breadth 1 mile. Its surface is level, and the soil is of considerable fertility, affording good crops of barley, oats, and potatoes. It has several harbours sufficient for the accommodation of fishing boats; and the beach is so well calculated for the drying and curing of fish, that an English fishing company has erected upon it several drying-houses.

IRELAND.

Boundaries and Extent.] Ireland, called by the inhabitants *Eris*, and by the Welsh *Yverdin*, is bounded on the N. the W. and the S. by the Atlantic Ocean; on the E. the southern parts are bounded by St George's Channel; the middle, by the Irish Sea; and the northern by the strait of Port Patrick. The nearest land to it on the W. is America; on the S. Galicia in Spain. It extends from 51° 10' to 55° 20' N. lat., and between 5° 40' and 10° 50' W. long. Its greatest length, measuring from N. E. to S. W. is about 300 miles; the greatest breadth about 160 miles. In consequence of the numerous and deep indentations of the sea on the W. coast, there is not a spot in the kingdom 50 miles distant from the sea. The superficial extent, according to some calculations, is 27,457 square miles; according to others, it is 30,370 square miles. Mr Wakefield was of opinion that, including the inland lakes, the superficial area amounted to 32,201 English miles, or 20,437,974 acres. A recent parliamentary paper states the total superficies of Ireland at 19,441,944 statute acres.

Progressive Geography.] The map of Ptolemy is the most ancient geographical document of this island which we possess. The principal tribes mentioned by the Roman geographer are, the Darini on the N. E., and the Vennicnii and Robogdii on the N. W., to the S. of these he places the Nagnatæ, Autinæ, and Gangani, on the W., the Erdini in the centre, and the Voluntii, Eblani, and Canci on the E. Still farther S. were the Menapii, Brigantes, Bodii, Ivelni, Vellabri, and Luceni. Ptolemy likewise mentions 10 towns as existing in this country in his time, of which the principal was Eblana, now Dublin. The geography of Ireland during the middle ages is very obscure. It was indeed little known till the time of Queen Elizabeth, when Stonyhurst and Spencer published descriptions of it; and even at this day the topography of its western counties is by no means accurately known.

Civil Divisions.] Ireland is divided into four large provinces, which are subdivided into counties, viz.

		I.—ULSTER.	
Counties.	Chief Towns.	Remarkable Circumstances.	
1. Antrim,	Antrim.	Length,	116 miles.
2. Armagh,	Armagh.	Breadth	100 do.
3. Cavan,	Cavan.	Circumference,	480 do.
4. Down,	Down.	Irish acres,	2,836,837
5. Donegal,	Donegal.	English do.	4,496,205
6. Fermanagh, . . .	Inniskilling.	Archbishopric,	1
7. Londonderry, . .	Londonderry.	Bishoprics,	6
8. Monaghan, . . .	Monaghan.	Parishes,	365
9. Tyrone,	Dungannon.	Burghs,	29
		Baronies,	55
		Market-towns,	58
		Lough Neagh, in this province, is supposed to cover	58,200 acres
		Increase of population, from 1813 to 1821,	11 per cent.
		Population in 1821,	2,001,966

II.—LEINSTER.

Counties.	Chief Towns	Remarkable Circumstances.
1. Caterlogh, or Carlow,	Carlow.	Length, 104 miles.
2. Dublin,	Dublin.	Breadth, 55 do.
3. Kildare,	Kildare.	Circumference, 360 do.
4. Kilkenny,	Kilkenny.	Irish acres, 2,642,958
5. King's,	Philipstown.	English do. 4,281,155
6. Longford,	Longford.	Archbishopric, 1
7. Louth,	Drogheda.	Bishoprics, 3
8. Meath, (East)	Trim.	Parishes, 858
9. Queen's,	Maryborough.	Burghs, 53
10. Meath, (West)	Mullingar.	Baronies, 99
11. Wexford,	Wexford.	Market-towns, 63
12. Wicklow,	Wicklow	Increase of population from 1813 to 1821, 16 per cent. Population in 1821, 1,785,702

III.—MUNSTER.

1. Clare	Clare.	Length, 135 miles.
2. Cork,	Cork.	Breadth, 120 do.
3. Kerry,	Ardfert.	Circumference, 600 do.
4. Limerick,	Limerick.	Irish acres, 3,289,932
5. Tipperary,	Cashel.	English do. 5,329,146
6. Waterford,	Waterford.	Archbishopric, 1
		Bishoprics, 6
		Parishes, 740
		Burghs, 28
		Baronies, 63
		Increase of population from 1813 to 1821, 20 per cent. Population in 1821, 2,005,363

IV.—CONNAUGHT.

1. Galway,	Galway.	Length, 90 miles.
2. Leitrim,	Leitrim.	Breadth, 80 do.
3. Mayo,	Mayo.	Circumference, 500 do.
4. Roscommon,	Roscommon.	Irish acres, 2,272,915
5. Sligo,	Sligo.	English do. 3,681,746
		Archbishopric, 1
		Bishoprics, 3
		Parishes, 330
		Burghs, 10
		Baronies, 43
		Increase of population from 1813 to 1821, 28 per cent. Population in 1821, 1,053,918 Total Population 6,876,949

CHAP. I.—HISTORY.

THE Irish are nowise deficient in that species of national pride which delights in the supposition of an existence from the most remote antiquity. In their claims of this kind they have even surpassed the inhabitants of the other parts of the British dominions. The Deluge itself has scarcely limited the retrospective views of certain Irish historical antiquarians. Ireland, if we may believe some of her native writers, was a great and flourishing kingdom when the whole continent of Europe was either a continued forest, or peopled by tribes not surpassing in civilization the Indians of North America. By what melancholy reverses of fortune this flourishing state of society was overturned in Ireland, we are not informed; but certain it is

that when the light of undoubted historic truth first begins to dawn on this island, we find its inhabitants involved in a barbarity fully as rude as that of their British or Gaulish neighbours. The reality of ancient Irish civilisation is supported by the testimony only of Irish writers; and we may be permitted, therefore, without any blameable degree of scepticism, to doubt whether it ever existed at all.

Celtic and Gothic Population.] That the Celts either passed of their own accord, or were driven by the Goths into Ireland, there is no reason to doubt; but it is not clear at what period this event happened. The first authentic glimpse we obtain of Irish history is furnished by Tacitus, who informs us that an Irish prince who had been expelled from his native country, solicited Agricola to invade Ireland, assuring him that a single legion of Roman soldiers would accomplish its subjugation. There is good evidence that Ireland, from the 4th to the 10th century, was known under the appellation of *Scotia*, and that its inhabitants were called Scots. It has been supposed, from some passages in St Jerome, that Christianity was introduced into this country so early as the 4th century. In the 6th century there appears to have been scarcely any vestiges of it; but soon after this period it sent forth such a number of holy men to propagate the Christian religion, that it was dignified with the title of *Insula Sanctorum*, or 'the Island of Saints.' According to Bede, in the year 646, many Anglo-Saxons settled in Ireland.

Early Political State.] Ireland seems, in the earliest period of its history, to have been divided among several independent chieftains or princes, who frequently assumed, but could never support, the title of king of Ireland. Under each of the chief princes were several subordinate chieftains or lords, who occasionally disputed the authority of their feudatory superior.

Invaded by the Northumbrians, &c.] In 684 Ireland was invaded by order of Egfred, king of Northumberland, and its lands, churches, and monasteries were laid waste by the ruthless foe. This invasion was followed by another and still more destructive one, in the beginning of the 9th century, when the Norwegians and Danes landed on the coast of Ireland. After many fierce struggles, their leader Turgesius was seized and put to death by the king of Meath. For a period of three centuries from this event, the Irish annals are filled with details of the wars between the natives and *Ostmen*, as these invaders were called. The inroads which a body of these Ostmen, who had established themselves in Ireland, committed upon Wales, furnished Henry II. of England with a pretext for attempting the conquest of Ireland.

Henry II. invades Ireland.] This reason justified his enterprise in a political point of view; and to justify it in a religious light he represented to the pope that the interests of Christian piety and knowledge required that Ireland should be made a province of England. The pontiff, pleased that he could be generous at so small expense, bestowed on Henry a full right to the country in question, and required him, as he valued the pontifical benediction, to persevere in the projected conquest. Henry would willingly have undertaken his expedition without any delay; but the state of England at that time effectually prevented him. At length an opportunity too favourable to be neglected presented itself. Dermot, king of Leinster, who had signalized himself by his perfidy, and the cruelty which he exercised over those princes who were unable to withstand his arms, having become enamoured of the wife of O'Ruarc, a neighbouring chieftain, took

advantage of some disaster which befell that prince, and carried off his lady. The injured O'Ruarc exerted himself so much to render his resentment effectual, that he soon united in one common interest all those princes who abhorred the cruelty or dreaded the ambition of Dermot. At the head of this confederacy was O'Connor, nominally the superior king of the southern parts of the island. Dermot was vanquished, and fled to Henry, at that time in France, to whom he represented himself as an injured prince, who had been driven by lawless usurpation from his country, and promised, that should Henry restore him, he would swear fealty to him for his whole territories. Rightly inferring, that a much smaller English force would be able to establish itself in Ireland, when supported by Dermot's influence, Henry, not having it in his power to proceed in person on the expedition, recommended the cause of the Irish prince to his barons; and three noblemen, Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitz-Gerald, undertook to replace Dermot, on condition of being rewarded with the possession of a portion of those lands which they were to conquer. Fitz-Stephen and Fitz-Gerald immediately sailed with a force consisting of only 600 men; but when Dermot's adherents perceived that he was supported by the English, they crowded to him from every quarter, and his enemies were defeated in several engagements. At length, after several changes of fortune, peace was concluded with O'Connor; Dermot agreed to consider himself as his vassal, and the Englishmen were settled in different parts of the country, and rewarded for their services with considerable possessions. Dermot's submission, however, was only pretended; he merely wished to gain time till he could receive more effectual assistance from England, and as soon as Strongbow arrived with a considerable re-enforcement, Dermot showed that he no longer accounted himself the vassal of O'Connor. A powerful confederacy was once more formed against him; but, though the Irish fought with much courage, Strongbow at length completely defeated them, and made himself master of a great part of the country. Henry now foresaw that should the earl make himself absolute in a great part of Ireland, he might forget his duty as an English vassal, and thus render the conquest of Ireland more difficult than it would have been had it remained in the hands of the Irish alone. Determining therefore to interrupt his career, he not only commanded that none of his forces should proceed into Ireland, but that all English subjects should leave that island under the pain of being accounted traitors. This royal mandate, joined to the death of Dermot, which happened about the same time, completely stopped the progress of the English, and even threatened to put them in the power of the Irish. Strongbow, after much delay, unwillingly returned to England, and appeased the resentment of his sovereign by resigning into his hands all that he had conquered. Henry now collected a small force, and hastened to do that which he was afraid Strongbow might have done before him. With an army of 4,400 men, he embarked at Milford, and in 1172 landed at Waterford. He affirmed that he came not to subdue the country by force of arms, but to take possession of that which was undoubtedly his by the gift of the pope; and many of the chieftains, either convinced that Henry's pretensions were just, or—what is more probable—despairing successfully to repel a force which they accounted formidable, submitted without resistance. O'Connor, unwilling to give up his kingdom without a struggle, but unable to contend with the forces brought against him, retired to the banks of the Shannon, and secured himself in the fastnesses of that region. In the meantime, Henry pro-

ceeded to treat that part of the country which had submitted as in every respect his own ; he endeavoured to introduce English laws, and divided the best part of the lands among his nobles, appointing Strongbow to be governor in his absence.

The necessary departure of the king was the signal for the commencement of new disorders. Henry took with him the greater part of his forces ; and the Irish chiefs soon refused to continue that allegiance which had always been insincere ; while the English barons, by their licentious conduct, convinced the natives that they were to look only for oppression under their new masters, and, consequently, made them still more willing than otherwise they might have been to adhere to the factions of their native princes. Domestic troubles prevented Henry from giving immediate attention to his affairs in Ireland, and the revolt became general. O'Connor once more endeavoured to retrieve the independence of his country ; but, after several engagements, was completely subdued, and the resistance of the Irish was once more unsuccessful. Fitz-Andelm, who had succeeded Strongbow in the government of Ireland, by his imprudent administration threw every thing into confusion. De Lacey, who was appointed to supersede him, might have restored tranquillity, but John, the youngest son of the English king, being appointed lord of Ireland, by his weak and puerile conduct, soon induced the natives to revolt against the English power. This revolt, with considerable difficulty, was quelled by De Courcey.

Richard I. to James.] During the reign of Richard I. who spent so much of his time in the East, the affairs of Ireland attracted little attention. When John ascended the throne, he endeavoured to compensate for the imprudence of his former conduct, by the establishment of regular laws, particularly in that part of Ireland which was under the immediate power of the English. This circumstance, joined to the caution and vigilance of his governors, preserved Ireland in some degree of tranquillity, when England was involved in a civil war. The weak reign of Henry III. encouraged the licentiousness of the English barons, both at home, and in Ireland where their conduct was less liable to be detected. This prince, however, extended the Magna Charta to this portion of his dominions. While Edward I. swayed the English sceptre, his vigour might have been able to restore the long lost tranquillity of Ireland, had not his wars with France, and his desire of enslaving Scotland, prevented him from bestowing much of his attention on this part of his territories. When the Scots, under Bruce, had recovered their liberty, and had even impressed on the English a considerable terror of their arms, they endeavoured to wrest Ireland from their rivals. The Irish, exasperated by the oppression of their English masters, gladly received the offer of Scottish aid ; and on Bruce's brother, Edward, invading Ireland with 6000 men, in 1315, he was joined by many of the natives. At first Bruce was successful, but, in 1318, he was defeated and killed at Dundalk. The attempt to conquer France—an undertaking which long was a favourite with the monarchs of England—prevented them from giving that attention to Ireland which they might otherwise have bestowed upon it ; and, during the civil wars, the Irish lived in a state of the most abject slavery, under the lawless sway of barons, who sought only their own aggrandizement, and who, amid the commotions of England, dreaded not to be called to any account for their conduct. The vigour of Henry VII. which restored tranquillity to England, likewise reduced Ireland to a state of complete dependance on his power, by restraining the

authority of the barons, forbidding the governor to assemble parliaments without express permission, and ordaining that no law passed in Ireland should be binding without the concurrence of the English king and his council. The caprice of Henry VIII., though he terrified his English subjects into a servile compliance with his imperious mandates, was ill-calculated to maintain that tranquillity in Ireland which his predecessor had established. His religious innovations disgusted all ranks; and, during his reign, as well as during those of his successors, Edward VI. and Mary, the Irish gradually relapsed into that state of barbarous confusion by which they had so long been distinguished. The Spaniards endeavoured to assist the Irish in throwing off the yoke of England during the reign of Elizabeth; but in this undertaking they failed, and Elizabeth fully confirmed the English dominion in that island. The attempts to promote the civilization of Ireland was first commenced in a rational manner by James. He planted colonies from England and from Scotland, in different places of the country, and introduced a regular and impartial administration of justice; and thus laid the foundation of all the future improvements of Ireland.

Recent History.] But the civilization of the Irish was not the termination of the troubles of their country. As they gradually emerged from their former barbarity, they began to regain sight of those privileges of which they had been wrongfully deprived; and the history of Ireland during the last century, is only that of the attempts of the British to deprive the Irish of all separate and independent political existence; and of the efforts of the latter to resist the encroachments of the former on their national liberties. Religious, no less than political views, had influence in instigating the Irish to oppose the British government, and commit the atrocities of the rebellion of 1641, which must ever disgrace the pages of Irish history. The same union of religious and political zeal appeared in the support afforded to James II.,—a prince who had acknowledged himself to be of the Catholic persuasion; and it has since evinced itself on many occasions.

The spirit of discontent displayed by the Irish Catholics, only afforded new pretexts to the British government to lay them under more severe restrictions, and to deprive them of the few privileges which remained to them. Nor was Britain more scrupulous with regard to the civil, than with regard to the religious privileges of the country. It was argued, that Ireland, as a conquered country, had no right to expect a participation in its conqueror's privileges; and that in all cases, the interests of Ireland ought to give way to those of Britain. An almost general sequestration of property took place, and nearly the whole of the landed population were pursued to the western province—the most barren and desolate part of the island. When the Irish connected their religious with their civil grievances, it appears not very surprising, that they early formed plans for the purpose of obtaining redress. A bill was passed in the British parliament declaring that the British legislature had full power by its laws to bind the people of Ireland. This bill excited a very general indignation, which was augmented rather than diminished, by the patent granted to Wood, an Englishman, for supplying Ireland with copper coinage. The coin issued by Wood was of the basest kind, and the transaction has been rendered famous by the warmth and success with which Swift engaged in the cause of his country. The debate concerning the copper money was followed by another respecting the national debt. The British administration like-

wise pretended that they could of right dispose of such parts of the Irish revenue as were more than sufficient for the service of the current year, in whatever way they thought proper; the Irish opposed the pretension, but their opposition did not prevent the assumed right from being exercised. Irish discontent has generally appeared very conspicuously in the associations which have been formed at different times, and under various pretences, but generally with the same view,—the emancipation of Ireland from what was termed British tyranny. Unfortunately for Ireland, these associations, instead of being animated with pure patriotic zeal, were frequently nothing better than bands of lawless depredators, whose measures tended to increase rather than diminish the misfortunes of their country. Among such Associations, the *White Boys* made themselves formidable at the accession of George III.; and the *Oak Boys* about two years later. They were followed by the *Steel Boys*; and more recently by the *United Irishmen*,—an association more formidable than any of the preceding.

Among the abuses of which the Irish complained, was the duration of their parliaments. Instead of being renewed every year, it had become customary to continue them during the pleasure of the sovereign,—a mode of procedure which put it in the king's power, by proper management, to secure the support of almost every member. In 1768 this pernicious custom was abolished, and eight years were declared to form the longest period during which a parliament could subsist. But next to religious tyranny, the numerous restrictions which had been imposed on Irish trade, most irritated the minds of the people. These restrictions were extremely numerous, and excluded the Irish from almost every profitable pursuit. After reiterated remonstrances, the British parliament seemed, at length, willing to give some attention to the representations which on this subject were daily made to them. They repeatedly resolved to free the commerce of Ireland from the restraints under which it laboured; but were as often prevented from executing their intentions by the petitions of the British merchants. These disappointments roused the resentment of the people, which had long been ready to show itself; and it was almost universally resolved to import no British commodities. Military associations were also formed, professedly with the intention of maintaining internal tranquillity, and of repelling the enemies of Britain; but with the design, as soon became evident, of maintaining the dignity of Ireland, and of extorting from Britain those privileges which its administration seemed so unwilling to grant. The ministry of Britain now became sensible of the danger to which they exposed themselves by neglecting the remonstrances of the Irish. In 1779 lord North procured for them several relaxations of those restrictions which had formerly been imposed on trade. These benefits were at first received with every mark of exultation and even gratitude; but the Irish elated by the grants which they had received, and attributing them not to the generosity of the British ministry, but to a necessity imposed upon them by the formidable state of the Irish domestic force, with very little circumlocution, proceeded to demand a free constitution, by which might be secured to them the privileges which they had acquired. The Irish volunteers—whose numbers became daily more formidable—in their resolutions which they made public, boldly declared Ireland to be an independent kingdom, and that the Irish were bound to submit to no other authority than that of the king, with the parliament of Ireland. The British administration felt it dangerous to attempt the suppression of the volunteer force but it was not difficult to secure a

majority in the Irish parliament. The declaration of independence, therefore, failed to obtain the sanction of the national legislature; on the contrary, the Irish mutiny bill, with a view to check improper combinations among those who had obtained arms, was rendered perpetual.

The volunteers now perceived that it was vain to expect any redress of their grievances from their national representatives. In 1781, therefore, they formed the resolution of using every effort to procure a reformation in the legislative body. For this purpose, a general meeting of delegates from the volunteers in all parts of the kingdom was called, and at the appointed time took place, when several resolutions were passed, of which the greater part tended to declare the independence of the Irish nation. But in proportion as the spirit of freedom gained ground among the military associations, it seemed to lose its influence on the legislative assembly. Every motion which tended to establish the independence of Ireland was instantly rejected. To give greater energy, therefore, to their former determinations, the volunteers declared their unanimous intention of supporting that independence to which they had already announced their attachment, and of opposing all such as should oppose this most essential right of their country. The Protestant electors also—to whom the franchise was at that time confined—entered into resolutions, “that no tie of connexion or even consanguinity, should influence an elector to vote for any man whose politics were hostile to the interests of the country.” On this principle they acted; they secured the great objects of their efforts, but they rent asunder the ties of landlord and tenant, who then, for the first time in Ireland, were seen to vote for opposite candidates. The British government now rightly judged that it was preferable to grant what might possibly be extorted. A message from the lord-lieutenant, therefore, directed the attention of the legislature to a subject which had so long agitated the public; and the motion which had lately been almost unanimously rejected, was now with almost equal unanimity received. The bill declaring the independence of Ireland passed the Irish parliament, and the lord-lieutenant promised that it should meet the approbation of his Britannic majesty. The exultation of the Irish, for some time, was extreme, until it was discovered that the repeal of the declaratory act was simple, without any formal abolition of the claim of right. Nothing less than a formal declaration of the independence of Ireland, on the part of the legislature of Britain, would now satisfy the minds of the Irish; and after some delay, this declaration also was obtained.

It was expected that this material change in the situation of Ireland, which took place in 1782, would have secured the tranquillity of that unfortunate island; but the hopes entertained by the friends of peace soon proved to be premature. The declaration of Irish independence had been procured principally by the Protestant party. The interests of the Catholics, therefore, were somewhat neglected; and they had not obtained that share of privileges to which they fancied themselves entitled. This was the occasion of new disturbances, until the parliament of Britain thought it proper to appease the discontented Catholics by granting them all the privileges of Protestant subjects, except those of being eligible to a few of the great offices of State, and of sitting and voting in either house of parliament.

Yet, instead of soothing the public agitations, this grant of privileges seemed only to exasperate them. Catholic emancipation—by which was meant a complete community of all kinds of privileges—was next loudly

demanded. To this was added, a request for reform in the representation in parliament, and of the duration of those meetings.

While Ireland was thus involved in agitating debates, that revolution commenced in a neighbouring nation which many considered as the most splendid political event which the world had ever witnessed, and some declared to be the era of freedom to the human race. The French had dissolved their former government; why might not the Irish throw off the yoke of Britain which had always been found so disagreeable? The French had promised aid to all that panted for political emancipation; why might not the Irish accept the proffered assistance? Such were the designs which, however well they might be concealed, occupied the minds of a considerable part of the community of Ireland; and which at length precipitated the nation into all the horrors of rebellion and civil war. The origin of this rebellion must be traced to that society so well known by the name of *United Irishmen*. This association was completely organized in all its parts,—from the simple meetings of twelve inferior members, to an invisible executive directory, which acted with precision and energy, while it was known only to a few. Every member, on his admission, had an oath administered to him. The professed design of the society was to procure Catholic emancipation and parliamentary reform; and, perhaps, many of the inferior members had no other view; but it appeared afterwards, that the views of the leaders, at least, were totally to separate the island from the British dominions, and to form an alliance with France. The United Irishmen found means of opening a correspondence with the French Directory; a plan of invasion having been concerted with the French, La Hoche, in 1796, landed with a few troops. The machinations of the revolutionary Irishmen were ill-concerted, and the French force was compelled to yield at discretion to the government troops. In 1798 the United Irishmen appointed military councils, nominated officers, and began to signalize themselves by nocturnal acts of violence; and such, at length, was the audacity of the insurgents, that in March, 1798, it was found necessary to issue a proclamation, directing the suppression of the rebellion by the most vigorous measures. These revolutionary movements would, perhaps, have been more formidable, had not many of the delegates been seized in different quarters, and the rebels thus deprived of some of their most able and energetic counsellors. Nothing, however, could prevent the insurgents from proceeding to open rebellion. An attempt to seize Dublin castle proved, through the vigilance of government, ineffectual. A large body of rebels took possession of the town of Carlow, but were soon afterwards defeated, and obliged to abandon it. The town of Kildare, which had likewise been taken, was rescued in a similar manner. In the neighbourhood of Wexford and Enniscorthy, however, the rebels assembled in great numbers, destroyed a detachment of militia which had been sent against them, and took these towns. Leaving a garrison in these places, they proceeded to the attack of New Ross, but were repulsed with considerable loss, and also before the towns of Gory and Newton Barry. A body of the royal forces, however, under colonel Walpole, were, on the 4th of June, compelled to retreat before a body of the rebels, after having lost their commander. Encouraged by this success, the rebels marched to the attack of Arklow, but were obliged to retreat, with the loss of a considerable number of men. While parties of the rebels were engaged in these different undertakings, a strong body posted themselves upon Vinegar-hill,—a position of much strength. The royal troops now collected in con-

siderable force under general Lake, resolved to attack this position, and if possible, to disperse the rebels in this quarter. Lake made his approaches with caution, and on the 21st of July ordered the troops to march to the attack. The rebels maintained their position with gallantry for an hour and a half; they then gave way and fled in every direction. The immediate consequence of this defeat was the evacuation of Wexford, which once more was occupied by the royal troops.

While these transactions were taking place in the neighbourhood of Wexford, the rebels, on the 7th of June, took possession of the town of Antrim; from which, however, they were soon after driven. The defeat which the rebels received at Ballynahinch, completely discouraged them in this quarter also; and many of them perceiving that their affairs were now hopeless returned to their usual occupations. Government now despatched Cornwallis to Ireland, with the commission of lord-lieutenant, — a man whose military talents were sufficient to crush the rebels should they again take the field in greater numbers than before, and whose civil virtues and moderation were calculated to reconcile the most disaffected. He arrived in Ireland on the 20th of June, and immediately made known his pacific intentions. A bill of general amnesty was passed. Bodies of the fugitive rebels every day laid down their arms, and in a short time this rebellion, at first apparently so alarming, was completely defeated. During the whole of this contest, the French seem to have forgotten their promise to give the Irish the aid necessary to enable them to throw off the yoke of Britain. That they should, without some considerable effort, have permitted such an opportunity of injuring Britain to escape them, is not a little remarkable. It is scarcely less remarkable, that after the rebel forces were dispersed, and after all hopes of ultimate success had left them, general Humbert should have landed with a force so inconsiderable, as would have been at first hardly calculated to enable the rebels to make a more vigorous resistance, and totally inadequate to rouse their drooping courage, after they had sustained several defeats. Whatever were their motives, the French landed at Killala, on the 22d of August, and immediately marched into the country with a small body of about 1000 men, who were soon forced to surrender unconditionally.

The Union.] That the French intended to have followed this slender force by one more powerful, became afterwards evident; but the total suppression of the rebellion rendered every such attempt hopeless. To prevent as much as possible similar insurrections, and to consolidate the interests of all parts of the British empire, it was now resolved to unite Britain and Ireland into one kingdom. This union was recommended by the viceroy to the Irish parliament on the 22d of January 1799. In the house of lords a favourable address was voted by a large majority; in the commons, after a debate which lasted 22 hours, there was a majority of only one in favour of the measure; when it was again brought forward the next day, however, those who opposed the union had a majority of 5, but the detail of the measure was postponed till the next year. When the Irish parliament again assembled, on the 15th of January 1800, a motion was made hostile to the measure, which was negatived by a majority of 42. The house of peers were likewise more decidedly in favour of a union; but there was still a formidable opposition headed by Mr Grattan. On the 21st of May, on a motion that leave be given to bring in a bill for the union into the house of commons, there were 160 for it and 100 against it; and on the 5th of June the bill passed the committee. In the house

of lords there was still less opposition; and the subject having been discussed in the British parliament, the bill received the royal assent on the 2d of July. In 1803 a very rash attempt was made by a few young men to overturn the existing order of things, which instantly involved themselves and their companions in ruin.

Catholic Emancipation.] It had been generally understood while negotiating the Union that in the event of its taking place the Catholics might look forward to the removal of all their disabilities. In the expectations, however, which they had then been led to form they were disappointed; and the friends of this measure were baffled in several attempts which they made to procure the repeal of Catholic disabilities. The history of their latest and successful attempt is fresh in the memory of our readers. That great and important measure being now carried, there is reason to hope that the discontent, disunion, and strife which have so long distracted Ireland and perverted her best energies, will soon cease to operate; and that the educated of all classes in Ireland will unite their efforts and influence to promote the welfare of their common country, and extinguish civil and religious animosity from among their countrymen.

CHAP. II.—PHYSICAL FEATURES.

THE surface of Ireland is almost entirely level; the greatest elevation of the platform of the country is the Bog of Allan, which does not exceed 270 feet above tide-water; yet from this ridge the waters of the principal rivers run to the different seas. This elevated ground, or back-bone of Ireland, as it has been termed, is connected with the principal mountains of the country: winding on the N. to those of Tyrone, and on the S. to those of Sleeve-bloom and the Galtees. The face of the country affords a pleasing variety of surface, consisting in some parts of rich and fertile plains, and in others of gentle acclivities in frequent succession. The most extensive levels are about the middle of the island, where a vast plain stretches quite across from sea to sea, including in its extent the Bog of Allan.

Mountains.] Although there are many hills of considerable elevation in Ireland, yet neither their continuity nor number is such as to give it that character which is called mountainous. In general the maritime parts, particularly those of the west, are more mountainous than the interior. The Irish mountains usually form short lines or detached groupes of different magnitudes; they are commonly of easy ascent, and admit of culture a considerable way up their sides.

The following is the elevation of a few of the most important of the Irish mountains:

	Feet.
Sleeve Donard, county of Down, measured barometrically, above the sea	3,150
Mangerton, county of Kerry, above the lake of Killarney, according to Kirwan	2,683
Croagh Patrick, county of Mayo, above the sea, barometrically	2,606
Nepin, county of Mayo, above the sea, barometrically	2,650
Cumeragh, county of Waterford, do. do.	2,160
Knock Meledown, do. do. do.	2,700

RIVERS.] The numerous rivers and deeply indented bays of Ireland

have given it greater facilities for internal navigation than almost any country in Europe.

The Shannon.] The most considerable river in Ireland is the Shannon. It rises in the county of Leitrim, and after running a few miles spreads into Lough Allan, and, in its progress towards the sea, forms several other large lakes. The river is almost every-where deep, and is highly advantageous to inland navigation. Where it falls into the sea, about 50 miles below Limerick, it has an extensive estuary nearly 7 miles broad. The length of the Shannon has been computed at 170 miles.

The Barrow, &c.] The Barrow has its source about 40 miles to the W. of Dublin; and after a course of about 100 miles, falls into the sea near Waterford. It receives the Nour, and the Suir.—The *Slaney* is a small stream, which enters the sea at Wexford; and the *Blackwater* or *Broadwater* forms Youghall Bay.—The *Boyne*, famous as being the scene of the last effort of James II., enters the sea upon the east; and the *Liffy* is remarkable only as it flows through Dublin.—The *Banna* originates near Monaghan, and after passing through Lough Neagh, enters the sea at Coleraine. The *Foyle* expands into a large estuary at Londonderry.—The outlet by which Lough *Earn* discharges itself into the sea is of considerable magnitude, but its length is not great.

Lakes.] Ireland abounds in lakes, some of which are very extensive. The most extensive lake of fresh water is that of *Lough Earn* in the county of Fermanagh, which properly speaking consists of two lakes joined by a small canal. The first of these is 20 miles long,—the other about 15; the medium breadth is 10 miles. This lake contains, in its two basins, above 300 fairy islands. The banks are more distinguished by characters of amenity and softness than sublimity.—Next in magnitude is *Lock Neagh*, which lies in the centre of Ulster, and is supplied by the constant influx of several considerable streams. Its length is 15 miles and breadth 7. Its waters find their way into the ocean by the river Banna or Bann, already noticed. Its shores are tame and uninteresting.—*Lock Corrib*, in the county of Galway, is 20 miles long, with a medium breadth of 4 miles.—In the midst of the mountains of Kerry are the celebrated lakes of *Killarney*, which form the glory of Irish scenery. They are 3 in number, and may bear comparison with the finest of the Scottish and English lakes. Overlooked by stupendous mountains,—bordered with pendent woods,—ornamented with the most verdant islands,—resounding on all sides with waterfalls, and the reverberation of a vast variety of echoes,—they combine an assemblage of beautiful and romantic scenery unsurpassed perhaps in the sister-island.

Singular Features.] The waterfall at *Hungrahill*, in the county of Cork, is visible from the town of Bantry 14 miles distant. The water is collected from various small rivulets and springs which unite to form a large lake on the top of Hungrahill,—a rocky and almost perpendicular mountain which is at least 700 yards above the level of Bantry-bay. From the top of this mountain the water cascades in a beautiful sheet, at least 10 yards broad, and dashes on a prominent rock situated about half-way up the mountain, whence it falls from rock to rock till it has reached the plain.—Among the singular features of Ireland, Young mentions the *Dargle*,—a romantic glen about 12 miles to the south of Dublin; and a large cave at the foot of the Galtee mountains in the neighbourhood of Mitchelstown. The entrance of the latter is narrow, but the cavern soon expands into a large size, being in length 100 feet, by about 50 or 60 feet in height

Beyond this the cave extends in a circuitous direction, to a distance supposed not to be less than half an Irish mile. The breadth, height, and general appearance, are various, being sometimes very spacious; and, from the incrustations of spar, the cave exhibits an appearance of great brilliancy.

The Giants' Causeway.] When describing the general features of Ireland, it would be improper to omit the Giants' Causeway, an immense mass of basaltic columns. This Causeway is upon the coast, 8 miles N.E. from Coleraine. The length of this arrangement of columns is about 600 feet, the breadth is from 240 feet to 120 feet. The pillars have three, four, five, six, or seven sides, but by far the greater number have five sides; scarcely two pillars can be found with their sides and angles exactly similar. The height of the pillars is various, though the general elevation of the causeway is from 16 to 36 feet. The pillars are composed of different pieces exactly joined, the one side of the joint being concave the other convex. In many of the capes and hills they are of a larger size; more imperfect and irregular in their figure and articulation, having often flat terminations to their joints. At Fairhead they are of a gigantic magnitude, sometimes exceeding 5 feet in breadth, and 100 in length; oftentimes apparently destitute of joints altogether. Through many parts of the country, this species of stone is entirely rude and unformed, separating in loose blocks; in which state it resembles the stone known in Sweden by the name of *trappe*. The stone is black, close, and uniform; the varieties of colour are blue, reddish, and gray; it is of all kinds of grain, from extreme fineness, to the coarse granulated appearance of a stone which resembles imperfect granite, abounding in crystals of schorl, chiefly black, though sometimes of various colours. Though the stone of the Giants' Causeway be in general compact and homogeneous; yet it is remarkable, that the upper joint of each pillar, where it can be ascertained with any certainty, is always rudely formed and cellular. The gross pillars also in the capes and mountains, frequently abound in those air-holes through all their parts, which sometimes contain fine clay, and other apparently foreign bodies; and the irregular basaltes beginning where the pillars cease, or lying over them, is in general extremely honey-combed, containing in its cells crystals of zeolite, little morsels of fine brown clay, sometimes very pure steatite, and in a few instances bits of agate. Naturalists have not been able to ascertain in what manner the basaltes, of which the Giants' Causeway, and other similar appearances consist, have originated. By some, it is argued, that they are crystalizations produced by water; by others, that they are of the nature of lava, and that their origin must have been volcanic. This debate has been conducted by both parties with more acrimony than success; but this is not the place to take notice of the various arguments which have been adduced by the partizans of the different opinions.¹⁹

¹⁹ The impression at first produced by this stupendous work of nature is that of the building of an extensive pier; for which the stones already blocked out, had many years ago been laid upon the beach, but from some great national calamity, or other unknown cause, the work was interrupted, and the labourers all dismissed. And so the natives believe, that the giants once commenced this colossal task of forming a causeway into Scotland; but that, being expelled by the ancient Irish heroes, they left the great work imperfect. The Causeway consists of three piers, or moles, projecting from the base of a stratified cliff about 400 feet in height. The principal mole is visible for 300 yards in extent, at low water; the others not more than half that distance. Its polygonal pillars are so closely united that it is difficult to insert more than a knife-blade between them. So close is the flooring of this natural quay, that whenever any subsidence of

CHAP. III.—CLIMATE.—SOIL AND PRODUCE.—CANALS.

THE climate of Ireland has a very close resemblance to that of England. The chief difference seems to be that it is more moist, intercepting from the Atlantic those vapours which would otherwise involve in almost perpetual rain the western shore of England. Generally speaking the mean temperature of the north of Ireland is about 48°, of the middle 50°, and of the south 52°. Western winds are frequent and violent; owing to the violence of these gales, the tides on that side of the island rise to a great height and flow with uncommon force. The sea is said to be making continual encroachments upon the land. It is probably owing to these combined circumstances, that the western side of Ireland is indented with so many branches of the sea, running a considerable way inland, and resembling those numerous inlets by which the western coast of Scotland is distinguished.

Soil.] The following is the territorial surface of Ireland according to a return made to parliament:—Arable land, gardens, meadows, pastures, and others, 12,125,280 acres; uncultivated land, and bogs capable of improvement, 4,900,000 acres; surface incapable of any kind of improvement, 2,416,664 acres. The most remarkable characteristic of the soil of Ireland, is said, by Young, to be its stony quality. Stones are everywhere numerous, without in any degree hurting the general fertility. This may be owing to their quality, which is generally calcareous. The moisture of the climate preserves the herbage constantly un parched, and contributes to afford that excellent pasturage for which the country has always been remarkable.

Bogs.] The greatest drawback to the general fertility of the soil of Ireland consists in the immense extent of bogs by which it is disfigured. These bogs are rarely level; they frequently rise into hills; their most common plants are heath-bog myrtle and sedge-grass. The parliamentary commissioners appointed in 1809 estimated the whole bogs in the kingdom at 2,330,000 English acres of which 1,576,000 acres consist of flat red bog, and the remainder form the covering of mountains. These bogs are nearly continuous, forming a great broad belt across the centre of the country, with its narrowest end towards the capital, and gradually extending in breadth as it approaches the western ocean. The owners never considered it practicable to reclaim much of the soil by draining these bogs.

the surface has occurred, water will be found to lodge, and remain for a length of time. Although the union of the columns has been just represented impervious to a lodgement of water, yet on the W. side of the Causeway is seen a spring of water bubbling up between the interstices of the columns, through which the blade of a knife could, with much difficulty, be introduced. This is called the *Giants' Well*, and the water found in it is extremely pure. The Causeway is inclined to the horizon in a small angle, and may be traced up the cliff in an easterly direction, and culminates at the distance of one mile from the Causeway, where it attains the height of 250 feet above the level of the sea. It still proceeds towards the E. and ultimately immerses at Portmore. This is not the grandest, nor most magnificent stratum of basalt; the next stratum but one to this forms the noblest natural colonnade in the world, the columns being more perfect in their articulation than the great columns of Fairhead, and of more colossal dimensions than those of the Causeway. In the face of the bold stratified cliff east of the Causeway, some very regular colonnades of clustered pillars are seen, the most perfect of which are called the *Organs*, from a very striking resemblance which the facade bears to the range of frontal tubes in a large church-organ. On a lofty projecting cliff stand a few shattered columns, usually known by the appellation of the *Chimney Tops*, said to have been mistaken by the crew of the vessels composing the invincible Armada of Spain, who forthwith fired upon the inoffensive columns, and registered in their fronts their foolish error.

Botany.] Ireland is distinguished by a few species of plants peculiar to itself. The vegetables are almost entirely the same as in England. Botany, however, has been little cultivated here; and few districts have been explored with precision, or, indeed, with any attention to their vegetable produce. The shore of the lake Killarney, is distinguished by the *arbutus unedo*, a plant not indigenous in any of the other British islands, and, even in Ireland, found only in this particular spot. The *saxifraga umbrosa*, cultivated in many gardens, is found on the mountains of Sligo. The species of cultivated vegetables are exactly similar to those found in Britain. Wood is scarce and of inconsiderable size.

Animals.] It has frequently been affirmed that no poisonous animal is found in Ireland; but it has been remarked, that this is no more than affirming that it differs from Britain only in having no vipers,—since, according to many naturalists, the viper is the only noxious animal found in the other British isles. Whether or not poisonous animals could exist in Ireland, if carried thither, is uncertain; it is by no means probable that the experiment ever was made. It has been affirmed that spiders will not attach themselves to Irish wood; but this affirmation is without foundation. The Irish hound or wolf-dog has been much celebrated for its beauty, size, and strength; but the breed is now almost extinct. The hobby is a small species of horse, distinguished for its easy pace. It appears from horns and skeletons which have been found, that an animal, now totally unknown, has formerly existed in this country. It was long imagined, that this creature must have been the Moose-deer, now well-known in America; but Pennant has shown that the creature to which the horns found in Ireland belonged, must have been almost double the size of the American deer. The horns have antlers for the brow. They sometimes measure between the tips no less than 14 feet, and weigh upwards of 300 pounds. It has been supposed that the animal, of which these horns formed part, must have been at least 12 feet high. It is said that magpies and frogs were unknown here till introduced toward the beginning of the 18th century.

Minerals.] Ireland is the only one of the British islands which, at present, is known to furnish gold. The spot in which this is found is in the county of Wicklow, about 7 miles to the W. of Arklow, in the bed of a torrent, descending from the mountain of Croughan-kishelly. The peasants were in use to collect the mud, clay, sand, and other sediment, found in this torrent: and, washing it in a rude manner, somewhat similar to that practised by the negroes in Africa, were often rewarded by the discovery of considerable masses of gold of much purity. Government thought it worth while to prosecute the search for gold here, but it was soon proved that the quantity found would not defray the expense. Gold is said to have been found in other parts of Ireland, but the quantity has always been inconsiderable. Silver has been found in Ireland, in quantities sufficient to indemnify for some time the labour of procuring it. Three mines are mentioned by Irish writers, one in the county of Antrim, one in the county of Tipperary, and one near Sligo in Connaught. That in Antrim was properly a lead-mine; but the lead so much abounded in silver, that 30 pounds of the former yielded one pound of the latter. The other two seem to have been silver-mines, properly so called. They were all formerly wrought; but the works were demolished during the troublous reign of Charles I. Copper has been discovered at Muccross in the county of Wicklow. Iron is found in many different districts. The ore, as in

other places, is of various degrees of excellence. Several iron founderies were established in the middle of the 17th century; but at present there are few or none. Coal is found in Kilkenny, in a state of purity supposed to be unrivalled. Castle Comer colliery is the largest in the kingdom, producing at least 40,000 tons annually. Near Kilkenny is found beautiful marble; and slates are procured in different places. The Irish freestone is said, by some writers, to have the quality of imbibing the moisture of the atmosphere. This quality is not peculiar to the freestone of Ireland; but as the atmosphere is there generally very moist, the effects of this quality may be more conspicuous. In the cave of Dunmore alabaster is found.

Mineral Springs.] Mineral springs are not so numerous as in England, and the efficacy of the waters is generally supposed to be greatly inferior. They are chiefly chalybeates. Those most frequently visited by invalids are, Lucan, near Dublin,—Swadlenbar, in the county of Cavan,—Johnstown, in Kilkenny,—and Mallin, in the county of Cork.

Geology.] This island rests for the most part on a bed of granite. It abounds in the neighbourhood of Dublin, and in some parts of Kilkenny. It is also found emerging from beneath the basalt of Sleeve-Gallen, in Derry. Limestone is met with in great abundance in various parts of Ireland. The basaltic district occupies a range of coast, stretching from Carrickfergus to Lough Foyle, and inland to Lough Neagh.

Canals.] The interior of Ireland is intersected by a variety of canals. Not many years after the example set by the Duke of Bridgewater in England, a grand canal was begun from the city of Dublin to the river Shannon. It was started by individuals, but at the time of the Union £500,000 was voted by government to assist in the completion of this canal, the greatest utility of which is to supply the capital with peat for firing, from the bog of Allan. Another branch of the *Grand Canal* proceeds to Athey, where it joins the Barrow.—The *Royal Canal*, one branch of which begins at Glasmanogree, in the county of Dublin, and the other at the Liffy, near Lots, extends to beyond Mullingar, and is principally used for the carriage of corn and turf.—The *Newry Canal*, which runs along the southern boundary of Down, from Carlingford bay to the Newry water, is used for conveying coals from the Tyrone collieries; it admits of vessels of 60 tone burden, and is one of the most useful in the kingdom.—The execution of the *Ulster Canal*, intended to form a navigable communication between Lough Neagh and Lough Erne, has been recently contracted for at the sum of £147,736, of which £100,000 has been advanced by government. Lord Cloncurry has recently suggested the formation of a ship-canal from Galway to Dublin, which would shorten by one-third the duration of an American or West India voyage from England; enable ships to avoid the dangers of the channel; and in conjunction with the projected canals from Portsmouth to London, and from the Bristol to the British channel, make the finest system of internal navigation in the world.

CHAP. IV.—AGRICULTURE—MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE—REVENUE—ABSENTEEISM.

THE tenures by which almost all the estates in Ireland are held, are derived from grants made in the time of Henry VII., Queen Elizabeth, Cromwell, or William III. With but two exceptions, there are no manorial rights in Ireland. There are several estates of upwards of 50,000 acres, and

some whose incomes exceed £100,000. The value of estates in general does not exceed 20 years' purchase. The leases commonly granted are for 61 years, and lives, 31 years, or 21 years. The system of what are called *middle-men* prevails very much in Ireland: these are persons who rent lands from the proprietors, and let them again to the real occupiers. Sometimes there are several renters between the landlord and the occupier.

State of Agriculture.] The agriculture of Ireland has improved much within these few years. It is still, however, very backward. The tenant is expected to erect the necessary buildings on the farm; the outlay generally consumes the farmer's capital, and he of course calculates his buildings just to last the length of his lease. No stipulation is made as to the rotation of crops or the application of manure; a tenant usually considers that, for the time he has his land, the more he can get out of it, and the less he can put into it, the better. If, at the end of a lease, the farm is in better condition than when originally let, the rent is raised,—raised even on account of the very buildings the tenant has erected out of his own money! Another cause of inferiority is found in the neglect of green tillage. The winter-climate of Ireland is mild: there is always grass enough for the cattle to starve on, consequently, none of the useful and cleansing crops of turnips or mangel-wurzel are ever resorted to. Again, the Irish at home are excessively indisposed to labour; they require incessant watching, and are always ready to take advantage of a holiday; with characteristic short-sightedness, they had rather go to work for another at eight pence a-day, than stay at home to get two shillings by well-directed attention to their own land. The climate of Ireland is in their favour; the soil is rich; and, what is a great deal, the mole is not known. But the Irish are idle.²⁰ The implements of husbandry used in Ireland are generally very rude in their construction. Wheat is not generally cultivated, and is often coarse, and of inferior quality. Barley is more generally sown; but it is calculated that, throughout the whole kingdom, there are 10 acres of oats sown for one of any other species of grain. The Irish oats, however, are decidedly inferior to the English. The potatoes of Ireland have long been celebrated both on account of their quantity and quality. They are cultivated in every species of soil; and the produce is from 800 to 1,000 stones, of 21 lbs. to the stone, per acre; that is, from 16,000 to 21,000 lbs. The dairy is the most extensive and best managed part of Irish husbandry. The average number of cows on a dairy-farm is from 30 to 40; 3 acres of land of middling quality being allotted to each cow. The average produce of each cow is 8 quarts per day in summer, and 5 in winter. The best butter is made in Carlow. It is exported to England, the East and West Indies, and Portugal. Great tracts of country are devoted to the grazing of sheep.

²⁰ To the query, 'Why are you not at work to day?'—says Mr Johnson—the answer, at least twenty days in the year, and then often at the most important and critical season too, will be, 'It's a holyday, Sir.' In the month of February, I have been told, 'It's early yet, Sir, and the ground is something wet still.' 'But why do not you open the drains, scour the ditches, grub up the weeds, mend the gaps I saw in your fence, and draw limestone on the land, and break it into gravel for manure: for your horses are idle, as well as yourselves?' 'Why then, it's true for your honour; but you are a stranger in these parts, Sir, and doesn't know the rights of it. The poor man affords to improve the land that-a-way! We haven't capital, Sir, that's the loss of this country, so it is: an' any how, sure I've only a twenty-one years' lease, and nine years of it gone, an' if I was to make the land that's in it better itself, I'd only be rising the rent on myself.' 'But, my good fellow, surely you will not sit down in sloth and poverty for a dozen of years, merely that your rent may not be raised at the end of that time?' 'Troth, an' I'd wish to keep the bit of ground for the childer at the rent, any how, Sir.' "

The Grain Trade.] The quantity of grain which Ireland exports to England and Scotland, has been nearly trebled within the last twenty years. For the four years ending 10th October, 1827, it was on an average—

Grain.	Meal and Flour
1,500,000 qrs.	470,000 cwts.

Of the grain, fully three-fourths consist of oats, about one-sixth of wheat, one-fifteenth of barley, and a small quantity of malt, pease, and beans. The south and the west of Ireland send out the largest quantity, and the north least. The exporting places stand in the following order, placing those first which furnish the largest quantity :—

1. Limerick,	9. Newry,
2. Cork,	10. Westport,
3. Waterford,	11. Belfast,
4. Sligo,	12. Londonderry,
5. Dublin,	13. Galway,
6. Dundalk,	14. Baltimore,
7. Wexford,	15. Colerain.
8. Drogheda,	

Of the grain sent out, 1,116,000 quarters, on an average of the four years, go to England, and 384,000 quarters to Scotland. Of the 470,000 cwts. of meal and flour, only a very small quantity (about 15,000) go to Scotland; England receives the rest.

Agricultural Exports.] The following is a statement of the official value of the several articles of agricultural produce, in the shape of salted provisions and live-stock, exported from Ireland in 1814, 1820, and 1823 :—

	1814	1820	1823
Butter . . .	£847,687	£1,091,312	£1,092,876
Bacon . . .	324,777	363,789	475,858
Beef . . .	178,516	101,130	136,594
Bread . . .	23,509	3,130	8,345
Pork . . .	228,539	197,212	166,218
Tongues . . .	3,332	2,063	1,446
Hog's-lard . . .	26,985	31,997	38,649
Oxen . . .	96,934	215,928	224,495
Hogs . . .	41,900	91,483	76,424
Sheep . . .	10,819	22,305	51,111
	£1,782,998	£2,120,349	£2,202,016

Linen Manufacture.] The most ancient, and still the most important manufacture of Ireland is that of linen. It seems to have flourished here even during the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth; but, from the particular fashion of the Irish shirts, great part of it was used within the country. The very fashion of these shirts indicates a country where linen was plentiful. It appears from official returns that the annual average of the linen-trade of Ireland, for ten years, from 1770 and 1780, was 25,000,000 yards. In 1782 and the ten succeeding years, the average rose to 40,000,000, being an exact annual increase of 15,000,000 yards. The exports of linen from Ireland in 1814, amounted to £2,645,912, and of linen-yarn to £62,928. In 1823 the exports of the former amounted to £3,148,528, and of the latter to £21,368. The raw material for the linen-manufacture is almost entirely grown in Ireland; the manufacture itself flourishes most in Ulster. The following is an account of the reputed

value of brown linen sold in the markets of the four provinces in the year 1824:

Ulster	£2,109,309	10	1½
Leinster	192,888	4	9½
Munster	110,421	0	3
Connaught	168,090	9	7½

Of 14,087,012 yards of Irish linen exported from the United Kingdom in the year ending 5th January 1828, 4,284,566 yards, in value £263,658, were exported direct from Ireland.

Cotton Manufacture.] The cotton manufacture is of very late introduction into this country; but is spreading rapidly. In 1814 the value of cotton-goods exported from Ireland amounted to £38,278; and in 1823 to £454,074.

Woollen Manufacture.] The greater part of the wool that is shorn in Ireland, is manufactured into frieze and linsey by the proprietors. There are, however, a few woollen manufactures of different descriptions in this country.

Fisheries.] There has been a gradual increase in the number of men engaged in the fisheries of this country for the last seven years. In 1822 the number of men employed amounted to 36,159; in 1825 to 52,482; in 1828, to 59,329; and in 1829 to 63,421. These fisheries not only furnish the means of subsistence and profitable labour to a very dense and very poor coast-population, but are a productive nursery for the supply of hardy seamen.

Commerce.] Few countries of Europe, and no part of the British dominions occupy a situation more favourable to commerce than that of Ireland. Enjoying a convenient intercourse with every part of Europe, its intercourse with America and the West Indies is shorter than that from any part of Britain; its coast is indented with many noble bays and harbours; its soil is fertile, producing all the necessaries, and many of the conveniences of life in a quantity sufficient, not only for its own inhabitants, but to supply a considerable export. The political state of Ireland long prevented it from making the most profitable use of these advantages; but the late favourable changes must call forth the native energy of the Irish, and impart to Ireland a fuller share of that prosperity by which Britain is so happily distinguished than she has yet enjoyed. The total amount of exports and imports from Ireland in the years 1814, 1820, and 1823 respectively were as follows:

	1814	1820	1823
Exports, £6,590,249		£7,179,223	£8,152,750
Imports, 6,687,732		5,167,014	6,080,975

National Bank.] The bank of Ireland was established in 1783, with a capital of only £600,000. It is now increased to £3,000,000, after paying the original subscribers 12½ per cent for their money, whilst it gives them at the present moment, £1,260 for every £437:10s. of money actually subscribed.

Excise and Customs.] Between the years 1790 and 1828 the consumption of spirits in Ireland has more than doubled in quantity, increasing from 3,438,079 to 8,260,919 gallons; malt has decreased almost one half, from 4,697,200 to 2,400,066 Irish bushels. The amount of sales of estates charged with duties in Ireland in 1826, was only £73,510 3s. 4d.; of

furniture £186,673 16s. Except the article of spirits, the amount of goods charged with duties of excise in Ireland is extremely small. The net produce of the duty on sugar in 1828 was only £426,008, and on coffee £14,855. The total produce of the customs for the year ending 5th January 1828 was £1,976,498; and of the excise, for the same period, £1,754,215.

Revenue.] With a population very nearly half as great as that of Great Britain, the total revenue of Ireland in 1817 was only £5,941,411; in 1820, £5,107,491; and in 1824, £5,201,714, or not one-twelfth of the total revenue of the former, while the expenses and charges upon collection were much greater in proportion. On the 5th of January 1817 the exchequer of Ireland was united with that of Great Britain, and the charge for interest and management on the loans raised in England was consolidated with the public debt on that date.

Absenteeism.] It has been loudly asserted by one class of economists that Ireland is drained of her wealth solely by her great landed proprietors becoming *absentees*, that is, living out of the country; and as boldly maintained by another that the absence of men of property from Ireland or any other country can have no effect in retarding its progress. We think both parties have fallen into error in the extremity to which they have carried their doctrines, and our readers will perhaps agree with us in the opinion after considering our views on this important subject which we subjoin at some length.²¹

²¹ The only way, the Economists contend, in which the rents of an absent landlord can be remitted to the country in which he has taken up his residence, is by exporting thither an equivalent amount of the raw produce or manufactures of his native country. It is true, say they, that the rents appear to be remitted simply by the purchase and transmission of a bill of exchange; but, on considering the matter for a moment, it will readily appear, that, without the actual transportation of valuable produce, the remittance cannot be effected. A bill of exchange is really nothing more than an order addressed by an individual to another, requesting him to pay to some third party a debt which has been contracted to the drawer of the bill; and, therefore, whatever be the amount to which bills of exchange are wanted upon any country, an equivalent amount of produce must be taken to that country, otherwise those bills could not be procured. It is demonstratively evident, therefore, that without actually sending raw produce or manufactures, the rents of an absent landlord cannot be remitted to him. And this being the true state of the fact, how can the absence of proprietors be injurious to the wealth of their native country? The internal demand for manufactures may, indeed, be diminished by their non-residence; but, to the same extent, the external must be increased; and the general prosperity, therefore, cannot be at all affected.

Such are some of the arguments by which the Economists have endeavoured to show that the absence of landed proprietors can have no injurious effect upon the prosperity of their native country. But, before stating any objection to the correctness of this theory, we would beg leave to remark, that, if the view which it takes of the effect of the absence of *landed proprietors* be correct, it must follow that the non-residence of the *monied* class also would not be attended with any injurious consequences. Their revenue, too, it may be contended, like that of the landed proprietor, cannot be remitted without an equivalent amount of manufactured goods or raw produce being sent abroad; and that, in this way, the very same amount of encouragement must still be given to the manufacturer of a country, which they could have enjoyed had the monied class been residing at home. If the reasoning of the Economists be correct in the one case, it must unquestionably be so in the other also; and not only the whole proprietors of land in Great Britain, but the monied classes also—including, of course, the whole holders of national stock—might become absentees, and consume their revenues in foreign countries, without the prosperity of their own being in the slightest degree affected.

Now, although we cannot agree with the Economists in thinking that the absence of men of wealth is not prejudicial to a country, yet we have no intention of calling in question the correctness of their reasoning in regard to the increased quantity of goods that must be exported from a country when its men of property are resident abroad. On the contrary, we conceive it to be impossible that the revenues of the absentees can be remitted to them without such an increase in the exports of their own country. But while we admit the soundness of this part of the argument, we continue, notwithstanding, to view the residence of men of property abroad as a circumstance injurious to the prosperity of a country—for the following reasons:

CHAP. V.—POPULATION—NATIONAL CHARACTER.

In 1805, Mr Newenham computed, from a variety of documents, that the population of Ireland—of which no account had been taken for 74

1st.—The demand for the services of a variety of important classes in the community is diminished, and a proportional degree of encouragement given to similar classes in the foreign countries where the absentees reside. The classes to which we allude comprehend those who are engaged in the learned professions of science, literature, and the fine arts; the education of youth, and the various departments of science, literature, and the fine arts; besides tradesmen and artisans of every description. The employment of these persons does not depend merely upon the presence of capital, but upon that of wealthy consumers; and Absenteeism, therefore, must have a most injurious effect upon the prosperity of them all. Now, the importance of literature and science to the moral and intellectual improvement of a nation,—the advantages which the arts derive from philosophy,—and the tone which the combined presence of all these influences imparts to society, will readily occur to every one. Besides, as it is by the savings of the different individuals constituting a community that its capital is increased, it follows, that, when the demand for the services of these different classes is diminished, the annual increase in the capital of the country from their savings must also be diminished.

2dly.—It appears to us quite a mistake to suppose, as the Economists have done, that it is of no importance whether the revenues of the Absentees be remitted in the form of raw produce or manufactured goods. We shall quote some of their arguments on this head:

“Raw produce is the article in which it is at present most for the advantage of Ireland to remit the rents of Absentees. And, supposing them to return to Ireland, a much less amount of their rents would be laid out in the purchase of corn, and a larger in that of the *manufactures* of the country. But this could not possibly occasion any increase of the *total* effective demand for labour; for it is evident, that if, under such circumstances, more people were employed in one way, fewer could be employed in another. If a non-resident landlord lays out his rent in the purchase of corn, which requires the labour of 500 men for its production, and if, in returning home, he lays out this rent in the purchase of manufacture, also produced by 500 men, the aggregate demand for Irish labour is in nowise affected by the change. Not only, however, would the demand for labour not be increased, but there are ten chances to one that it would be considerably diminished by such a change as has now been supposed. A greater number of labourers will almost uniformly be employed in the production of £500 worth of corn, than in the production of £500 worth of manufactured goods. Our readers are well aware that Dr Smith has founded his theory, with respect to the superior advantageousness of agricultural industry, on the circumstance of its being found, that if two equal capitals are employed, the one in agriculture, and the other in manufactures, the former will afford employment to a much greater number of individuals than the latter; and those who dissent from Dr Smith's theory do not deny the assumption on which it is founded, but merely contend that it is not by the number of people, but by the rate of net profit that different businesses yield, that their comparative advantageousness is to be determined. The recommendation of a system that would most certainly occasion a considerable diminution in the demand for labour, is a truly *Irish* mode of providing employment for a people.”—*Edinburgh Review*, vol. xlii. pp. 60, 61.

The Economists here admit, that if the Absentees were to return to Ireland, there would be a greater demand for manufactured goods, and less for raw produce; but they contend that this would actually occasion a less demand for labour, and be of no advantage whatever. In order to show the fallacy of this reasoning, let us attend to the difference betwixt the exportation of raw produce from one country to another, in the way of exchange for an equivalent value immediately received in return, and the exportation of it in payment of the rents of Absentees. It may be perfectly true that it is often of the greatest advantage to a country to exchange its raw produce for manufactured goods; but then it is a very different question whether it be equally advantageous to export the revenue of Absentees in this form. For what is sent out of the country in the latter way, there is nothing received in exchange; and if it be true that had the Absentees been residing at home, that raw produce would have formed capital for the employment of labour, and been converted into manufacturing goods, it must certainly follow, that by the return of the Absentees, the capital of the country would employ a greater number of labourers, and more economical value would be produced. Now, it appears certain, that this is the case. A variety of manufactured goods cannot be produced, except at the place where they are to be consumed. The important articles of corn and cloth, for example, are scarcely ever completely fitted for consumption, except where they are produced. If, therefore, a certain number of labourers were to be employed in the production of raw material, and if that material, on the return of the Absentees, were to give employment to an *additional* number of hands, it is truly an Irish mode of reasoning to contend that the demand for labour would be diminished by the residence of the landlords or landed classes.

years—amounted in that year to about 5,395,456,—which was near one million and a half more than its generally supposed amount; and that it increased so as to double in 46 years. Increasing at that rate, from the year 1791, (the last year mentioned in Mr Newenham's Table, and when it appeared to have amounted to 4,206,612,) to the year 1821 inclusive, it must have experienced an *average* annual addition of 91,148; and consequently have amounted that year, according to that gentleman's computation, to 6,941,052; which was almost precisely its real amount,—the return made in that year including a population of 6,801,827 souls. This, we believe, is the most accurate computation of the kind ever made. In some important respects, it appears greatly to surpass those of Sir William Petty, Dr Davenant, Dr Brackenridge, and Dr Price. The following Table exhibits the principal results of an official return made to parliament in 1823:—

PROVINCES.	COUNTIES.	TERRITORIAL EXTENT IN IRISH PLANTATION ACRES.	TOTAL NUMBER IN EACH COUNTY OF			PROPORTION OF LAND TO EACH	
			Houses.	Families.	Persons.	Hous.	Inhab.
ULSTER,...	Antrim.....	387,200	48,028	55,494	270,983	8	1.38
	Armagh.....	181,450	36,260	39,860	197,427	5	.90
	Cavan.....	301,000	34,148	36,809	195,076	9	1.50
	Donegal.....	679,550	44,800	48,030	248,274	15	2.75
	Down.....	348,550	59,747	63,221	325,410	6	1.06
	Fermanagh...	283,450	22,585	25,263	130,998	12	2.16
	Londonderry...	318,500	34,991	37,557	193,869	9	1.60
	Monaghan.....	178,600	32,378	34,063	174,679	5	1.
CONNAUGHT,	Tyrone.....	463,700	47,164	50,012	261,865	10	1.77
	Galway.....	989,950	58,137	63,480	337,374	17	3.
	Leitrim.....	255,950	21,762	23,101	124,785	11	2.
	Mayo.....	790,600	53,051	56,026	293,112	15	2.66
	Roscommon.....	346,650	37,399	40,963	208,729	9	1.60
LEINSTER,...	Sligo.....	247,150	27,059	28,167	146,229	9	1.66
	Carlow.....	137,050	13,028	14,630	78,595	10	1.75
	Dublin.....	142,050	35,740	83,491	335,895	4	.42
	Kildare.....	236,750	16,478	19,180	99,060	14	2.40
	Kilkenny.....	300,350	29,789	33,321	181,946	10	1.66
	King's County..	282,000	22,564	25,374	131,068	16	2.16
	Longford.....	134,150	18,987	21,650	107,570	7	1.20
	Lowth.....	110,750	21,302	24,059	124,129	5	1.07
	Meath.....	327,900	27,942	30,125	159,183	12	2.
	Queen's County	235,300	23,105	24,945	134,275	10	1.71
	Westmeath.....	231,550	23,015	24,561	128,819	10	1.83
MUNSTER,...	Wexford.....	342,900	29,959	31,939	170,805	12	2.
	Wicklow.....	311,600	17,289	19,047	116,767	18	2.81
	Clare.....	476,200	35,373	39,214	208,089	13	2.30
	Cork.....	1,048,000	114,463	137,487	730,444	9	1.42
	Kerry.....	247,650	35,597	38,059	216,189	18	3.
	Limerick.....	386,740	42,409	51,165	277,477	9	1.33
	Tipperary.....	551,950	55,927	62,457	340,896	10	1.55
	Waterford.....	262,800	23,860	28,964	156,611	11	1.66
		11,943,000	1,142,602	1,312,032	6,801,827	10½	1.75

344.—Another injurious consequence of the absence of men of wealth from a country, arises simply from its turning a considerable part of the commerce of a country into a trade with foreign nations. The home trade is always the most secure. It is when

The number of houses and of persons in the above statement, when compared with the population return of 1821, differs in some instances very considerably. The returns from Galway, Kerry, Leitrim, and Sligo, are more, and from Cork and Meath less, in the above, than the returns made in 1821; but a note to the latter document informs us, that, "though generally accurate, the returns were in some instances defective." The above statement having been compiled from the amended and corrected return presented to parliament, and ordered to be printed, 18th July, 1823, and completed late in 1824, will, of course, be most entitled to regard for its authenticity. As regards the territorial extent of each county, the parliamentary paper states the number of acres to be taken from Beaufort's Memoir, as being (though not perfectly accurate) the latest and best account. We are, however, inclined to consider that gentleman's admeasurement as considerably under the truth. The same returns from which we have compiled the above table, furnish us with the following summary:—

SUMMARY	PROVINCES OF				TOTAL.
	ULSTER.	LEINSTER.	MUNSTER.	CONNAUGHT.	
NUMBER OF FAMILIES,	300,709	352,380	357,306	311,637	1,322,032
NUMBER OF HOUSES { Inhabited,	330,801	278,308	306,986	197,408	1,113,003
{ Uninhabited,	9,801	9,090	10,972	5,308	35,271
{ Building,	230	470	308	234	1,350
PROPORTION OF { Males,	988,061	859,798	900,119	553,948	3,311,926
{ Females,	1,030,433	807,093	975,492	556,781	3,559,901
OCCUPATIONS. { Agriculture,	338,798	258,008	330,000	236,005	1,192,011
{ Trade, Manufacture, &c. . . .	284,127	215,835	145,917	224,165	1,170,044
{ All other Occupations,	143,818	173,215	150,079	61,519	528,702
{ Total occupied,	1,056,738	641,658	616,054	522,361	2,836,815
NUMBER OF EACH SEX { Males,	60,400	75,516	80,225	31,380	247,606
{ Females,	33,244	36,788	40,070	15,105	125,907
UNDER EDUCATION { Total,	104,734	114,298	121,295	46,485	326,813
{ Attending Sunday Schools,	125,272	20,790	5,000	5,439	157,186

Census of 1831.] The following are the results of the latest census of Ireland, from which it appears that the total population of that country in 1831, exceeded 7,734,372 souls :

LEINSTER.		CONNAUGHT.	
Counties.	Pop.	Counties.	Pop.
Carlow	81,576	Athlone Town	11,362
Dublin	183,042	Wexford	182,991
Dublin City	203,652	Wicklow	122,308
Kildare	108,401		
Kilkenny	169,283	Total	1,927,974
Kilkenny City	23,741		
King's	144,029	Galway	394,287
Longford	112,391	Galway Town	33,120
Louth	108,168	Leitrim	141,303
Drogheda Town	17,365	Mayo	367,956
Meath	177,023	Roscommon	239,903
Queen's	145,843	Sligo	171,508
Westmeath	136,799	Total	1,348,077

engaged in this trade that the merchant is least liable to commit mistakes with regard to the species of goods that the market requires. He has a more intimate acquaintance with the person with whom he is transacting business, and has readier means of compelling implement of contract.

MUNSTER.			ULSTER.		
Counties.		Pop.	Counties.		Pop.
Clare		258,262	Antrim		314,608
Cork,* East Riding	407,935	700,359	Carrickfergus Town		8,698
West Riding	292,424		Armagh		270,651
Cork City		107,007	Cavan		228,050
Kerry*		219,989	Donegal		298,104
Limerick		233,505	Down		352,571
Limerick City, including St.		66,575	Fermanagh		149,555
Francis Abbey, extra pa-			Londonderry		222,416
rochial			Monaghan		195,532
Tipperary		402,598	Tyrone		302,943
Waterford		148,077			
Waterford City		28,821			
			Total		2,293,129
Total		2,165,193			

Progress of the Population.] Mr Bryan, in his 'Practical view of Ireland,' makes the following statement:—"I presume the population of Ireland to be about 8,000,000, and from the annexed table it will be inferred, that on an average hitherto, Ireland has doubled her population in about sixty-three years. According to Mr McCulloch, the population of Scotland in 1700, amounted to 1,050,000; in 1820, to 2,135,000, thus taking 120 years to double. He likewise asserts, that the population in England in 1700, was 5,475,000, in 1811, it was 10,488,000, requiring about 107 years to double. According to Mr Matheiu, the population of France would take 111 years to double at its present rate. The king of Sweden says, that Sweden has added more than a sixth to her population in twenty years, thus doubling in less than 120 years.—We may perceive from Ven Malchus's account of the population of Europe, that Ireland has only seven European states her superiors, and eighteen her inferiors in this respect; and in point of superficial extent of territory, she has but ten states her superiors, and fifteen inferior to her. The seven united provinces of Holland, which have so frequently struck the scale in the balance of power in Europe, do not exceed in extent or population, Ulster, the fourth province of Ireland."

A TABLE OF THE PROGRESS OF THE POPULATION IN IRELAND:

1672, Sir W. Petty . . .	1,100,000	1777, The same . . .	2,690,556
— The same corrected . .	1,320,000	1785, The same . . .	2,845,932
1695, Captain South . . .	1,034,102	1788, G. P. Bush . . .	4,040,000
1712, Thomas Dobbs . . .	2,099,094	1791, Hearth-money Collec-	
1718, The same	2,169,048	tors	4,206,612
1725, The same	2,317,374	1792, Rev. Dr Beaufort . .	4,086,226
1728, The same	2,309,106	1805, Thomas Newenham . .	5,395,456
1731, Established Clergy . .	2,010,221	1814, Incomplete census . .	5,937,856
1754, Hearth-money Collec-		1821, Census, 55 Geo. III.	
tors	2,372,634	c. 120	6,801,827
1767, The same	2,544,276	1831, Incomplete census . .	7,734,372

Several writers assert that Ireland was in former ages a much better peopled country than it now is. The proofs of this, however, are extremely scanty, being chiefly drawn from some faint traces of ancient cultivation where the soil is now desert. The former existence of a large city on the top

* There are sixteen parishes in the county Kerry, and one parish in the county Cork, the returns for which are outstanding, from unavoidable circumstances.

of a high mountain in the north of Ireland, is not perhaps better ascertained than the artificial construction of vitrified forts on several of the hills of Scotland.

Character of the Inhabitants.] The native Irish are, undoubtedly, the same race with the present inhabitants of Wales, and the Highlands of Scotland; the identity of their language being an unanswerable argument on this point. We may expect, therefore, that many customs will be common to all these countries. The meanest of the Irish might certainly enjoy more of the conveniences of life than the Highlanders of Scotland, since their country is so greatly superior in natural resources; but notwithstanding of this, the Irishman's condition is generally infinitely worse than that of the Scottish Highlander. His hut, commonly called a *cabin*, is a miserable structure of clay mixed with straw, affording one common apartment for his family and pigs, and a cow, if he be rich enough to possess one. The fire is upon the floor, and an opening in the roof emits the smoke. Potatoes and milk form the greater part of his nourishment.

Like the Scottish Highlander, his most beloved music is the bagpipe; but the Irish instrument is somewhat different from that generally seen in Scotland. The Irish music, like the Scottish, is of a peculiar character. It is commonly simple, and almost always pleasing. Surnames in Ireland, as in the Highlands of Scotland, often commence with *Mac*, equivalent to 'son.' In the former country, they also frequently commence with *O*, equivalent to 'grandson'—a practice little known in the latter. The *wail*, or custom of howling at funerals, is not peculiar to Ireland, being common in Russia, and among some of the American tribes; but it is unknown in Scotland.

The common people, among the native Irish, properly so called, are a rude unpolished race. They have, therefore, all the vices, as well as all the virtues attending a barbarous state of society. Hardy from exercise and constant exposure, and temperate from necessity rather than from choice, they know few of the diseases of indolent luxury. Without acquired knowledge, and consequently of very limited understanding, they not unfrequently commit such mistakes, both in expression and action, as excite the risibility of the better informed. Their passions, confined to few objects, are warm, or rather furious, in proportion to the scantiness of those objects. Hospitable to each other, and warmly attached to those that are esteemed friends, they are no less violent foes to such as they account their enemies; and eagerly seize every opportunity of fomenting and indulging that resentment which they think it a sacred duty to cultivate.

The various rebellions, and the frequent insurrections which have disturbed this country,—the daily recurring riots,—the robberies and midnight murders, which are certainly more frequent in Ireland than in the sister island,—have cast a disagreeable shade over the national character, and attached to it, in the estimation of strangers, ideas of ungovernable turbulence and savage ferocity, highly unfavourable, and—as every one knows who has become thoroughly acquainted with it—greatly beyond the truth. To obviate this misconception—which is certainly a very general one—is a pleasing duty, and must be gratifying to every real lover of his species. An Irishman has not received from nature any greater bias towards vice than is felt by and witnessed in every human creature. Neither the air which he breathes, nor the food by which he is sustained, bestows any such propensity; Nature has, neither in Ireland, nor in any other region, afforded man a plausible excuse for wickedness; if, therefore, the vicious

passions are more prevalent or more powerful in Ireland, than in some other places, they must be nourished by causes purely moral, and it is not a very difficult undertaking, to point out some of these moral causes which, in Ireland, tend to encourage those passions which are destructive of the peace of society

The situation of Ireland with regard to religious matters, is such as to deprave the moral sentiments of the people. Of the native Irish, the greater part are Roman Catholics, and consider the English settled among them, who are for the most part Protestants, as heretics with whom they ought to be at enmity. The tendency of the Catholic religion has long been to keep its votaries in ignorance; and, in Ireland, the common people are, if possible, more ignorant than in most other Papal countries. The religious and political state of the country has prevented those who have emigrated from other nations from coalescing with the original natives, and has tended to keep up with respect to the population the appearance of distinct races. Besides their peculiar religious views, all retained with the greatest tenacity, those customs which they originally brought along with them; and every day, instead of assimilating them to each other, only widened the difference and increased the mutual dislike. Taking all this into the account, it is certainly erroneous, as well as ungenerous, to suppose that there is something radically defective in the Irish character. The Irish, even the most ignorant of them, have all the faculties of mind which belong to human nature. Their moral powers are not naturally defective. Among each other, no nation can be more hospitable, or more faithful. But when their moral principles have been perverted by the false lights of superstition, and their resentments excited by their political situation, we ought not to be surprised that they should have distinguished themselves by acts of ferocity and barbarism, almost totally unknown where knowledge is promoted and government regulated by the principles of justice and the dissemination of religious truth.

Every true philanthropist and genuine friend of Ireland will be induced to hope that the late Union, followed up as it now is by what should never have been withheld, full emancipation to our Catholic fellow-subjects, and the consequent participation of privileges, and combination of interests, will render Irishmen and Britons one people. Some more strenuous measures, it is hoped, will ere long be taken for the more general diffusion of knowledge and the encouragement of habits of sobriety and industry. And under the united influence of these and such other measures as may suggest themselves to the friends of Ireland, it is reasonable to hope that the evil influences which have hitherto prevailed will gradually vanish; that civilization will steadily advance; that morality will here resume that power over the mind which it always ought to possess; and that the Irish will acquire that importance in the list of British subjects which naturally belongs to them, but of which, from their peculiar situation they have so long been deprived.

CHAP. VI.—LITERATURE—EDUCATION—RELIGION.

Language.] The original language of Ireland is a dialect of the Celtic—a language which formerly was common in a great part of Europe. It has a close resemblance to the dialect spoken in the Highlands of Scotland; but the latter is said to be more pure than the former,—a quality which is

attributed to the less-accessible nature of the country inhabited by the Scottish Highlanders. As a specimen of the Irish Celtic, we subjoin the Lord's Prayer in that language.²¹ By comparing it with the specimen of the Scottish Celtic already given, it will at once be perceived that the difference is not great. If the common specimens of the Welch be correct, there must be many considerable deviations in orthography, at least, in the Celtic of Wales, from that of Ireland and of Scotland; though we are assured, that the language is radically the same in all these countries; and that the natives of any one of them are not unintelligible to those of the other two. Great misconceptions are generally entertained regarding the nature of the Irish language, and the extent to which it prevails through the country. No man unacquainted with it need attempt to travel through either the western or southern counties, unless he has a skilful interpreter by his side. It is considered, too, as an uncouth and barbarous idiom, inharmonious in its sound, and irregular in its structure. Yet irregular it cannot be; and it is beyond question one of the most powerful mediums of communication still in use. Containing within itself its own roots, and borrowing its inflexions from no foreign tongue, it possesses a copiousness and versatility which may well account for the admiration felt towards it by De Rentai and Vallancey. As for its harmony of sound, much will of course depend on the taste and habit of the hearer.

Literature.] The Irish antiquarians have endeavoured to establish the claim of their country to a flourishing state of civilization when almost every other part of Europe was immersed in heathen barbarism. We may easily suppose that national partiality has had some share in this view of matters, but still much is incontestably due to Irish literature. The introduction of Christianity was followed by the arts of learning; and such was the proficiency of the Irish ecclesiastics, that the Anglo-Saxons and the Scots first acquired from them any thing like learning. If any man will take the trouble of consulting the ancient French historian Mezeray, he will find that the writers of his country acknowledge themselves indebted to the literati of Ireland for almost all the knowledge they possessed of the historic affairs of Europe during the middle ages. Benedict of Aniens, a writer of the 8th century, admits that the Irish were the first who introduced philosophic reasonings into religious discussions; and the venerable Bede asserts, that the British gentry were educated gratuitously in the Irish academies. This promising state of affairs, however, had not a long continuance. The unhappy commotions of the country were ill-calculated to advance the interests of learning; and Ireland was quickly surpassed by the nations which received from her the rudiments of instruction. There are many valuable Irish manuscripts in existence, particularly the Annals of Tigernach, Inisfall, and Ulster, and the Chronology of Mac Liag.

In more recent times, though the common people in Ireland have been permitted to remain grossly ignorant, writers of eminent genius, natives of Ireland, have appeared in almost all the different departments of literature. The names of Usher and Ware are well known. The brilliancy of Farquhar's wit has attracted universal admiration. Swift, alike distinguished for the poignancy of his satire, and the correctness of his style, was a native

²¹ Ar saothair aon ar neamh. Naomhthar baism. Tíreadh de ríeghachd. Deuotar do thell ar an stalamh mar do nítheas ar neamh. Ar naran la athamhail tabhair dhuinn a níw. Agus maith dhuinn ar bhíacha mar mbáithmidne dar bhíeltheamh-ranibb fein. Agus na íolg sinne a cathugbadh. Achd aon slán e ok. Amen.

of Ireland. Steel is the author of several comedies which continue to be acted and applauded. He is likewise known for having projected and edited the *Tatler*,—the first work of the kind published in Britain, and—assisted by Addison and others—the *Spectator*, and *Guardian*, works that still deservedly rank at the head of their department of literature. To descend nearer our own times, the amiable Goldsmith stands almost unrivalled for the tenderness of his poetry, the beauty of his style, and the vivid peculiarity of his humour. Burke surpassed every thing known before his time in modern oratory ; and has, perhaps, fully refuted the supposition that in this art the moderns could never hope to equal the ancients. Sheridan and Maturin are eminent names in more than one department of literature. Kirwan's celebrity in mineralogy is well known to those who cultivate that science. The catalogue of names might easily be augmented ; but those which have already been mentioned would be sufficient of themselves to confer celebrity on Irish literature.

State of Education.] In no part of the British dominions has education been so much neglected as in Ireland. The system of education pursued in this country could not indeed be called bad, for in fact there was no system. No provision was made by law for the establishment of schools, in which the common branches of education might be taught at a cheap rate. We are informed, indeed, that there were upwards of 40 schools in Ireland, called *Charter working-schools*, educating upwards of 2000 boys, which were maintained by an annual grant from government, by some considerable taxes, and by voluntary contributions. Whatever may have been their nature, 40 schools for the education of 5,000,000 of people was a provision utterly inadequate. Supposing the private schools to have been more than ten times that number—a statement, it is feared, far above the reality—the quantity would still have been insufficient. More active measures have recently been taken with regard to Irish education both by government and private individuals and societies. Nothing can be more important for the tranquillity of Ireland, and the general prosperity of the British empire, than the establishment of a proper system of education in that part of the United Kingdom.—It is with pleasure that we here particularize the laudable exertions of the Hibernian Society, established at London in 1806, for the purpose of organizing schools in Ireland. In 1828 this society had 1,352 schools under its charge with 76,444 scholars. These schools include day-schools, adult-schools, Sunday-schools, and classes for teaching the native Irish language.—The Irish society for diffusing Protestant principles throughout Ireland had 526 schools under its charge in 1828.—The Sunday-school society for Ireland, established in 1809, had 1,702 schools in 1825, which were attended by 150,831 scholars. It appears by the Appendix, No. 5, to the Ninth Report of the Commissioners of Irish Education Inquiry, that there are in Ireland 24 Catholic schools belonging to the Christian brotherhood and other religious orders ; 46 female schools attached to nunneries ; and 352 day-schools, maintained wholly, or in part, by subscription. These estimates are entirely independent of day-schools, and those maintained by individuals. To these may be added, the Roman Catholic college at Maynooth, the Jesuits' college at Clongows, and Carlow college under the superintendence of Dr Doyle.

University of Dublin.] Ireland has only one university,—that of Dublin. It was planned in 1311 ; but was not completely established till the time of Elizabeth. James I. and his son Charles contributed much to its

prosperity. It is denominated Trinity College, and has a chancellor, vice-chancellor, provost, vice-provost, 22 fellows, and 13 professors. The number of students, upon the foundation, is 70, but the total number in attendance is generally 400. The library is considerable, and has a printing office annexed to it.

Established Church.] The established religion of Ireland is Episcopacy, according to the tenets of the church of England. Four-fifths of the people, however, are Roman Catholics; and the Presbyterians are at least as numerous as the Episcopalians. There are several congregations of Methodists, Independents, and Baptists.

The archbishoprics are 4; those of Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam. The bishoprics are 22, distributed in the following manner:

<i>Archbishopric of Armagh.</i>		
Meath, Kilmore and Ardagh,	Dromore, Raphoe, Clogher, Down, and Connor	Derry.
<i>Archbishopric of Dublin.</i>		
Kildare,	Ferns and Laughlin,	Ossory.
<i>Archbishopric of Cashel.</i>		
Waterford and Lismore, Limerick,	Killaloe, Cork and Ross.	Cloyne.
<i>Archbishopric of Tuam.</i>		
Elphin,	Cloyne,	Killala, and Achonry.

The subjoined is an account of the estates annexed to some of the Irish bishoprics:

Belonging to the	Ir. acres.	Belonging to the	Ir. acres.
See of Derry	94,836	See of Cork	22,755
Armagh	63,470	Meath	18,374
Kilmore	51,350	Ossory	13,891
Tuam	49,281	Cashel	12,800
Clogher	32,317		
Elphin	31,017	Total	418,872
Dublin	28,781		

This account is taken from the returns made by order of the House of Commons, in the session of 1824, and it includes only 11 bishoprics out of the 22. If these Irish acres were converted into English statutable measure, they would be something more than 600,000—for an Irish acre makes 1 acre, 2 roods, 19 perches English.

Roman Catholics.] The amount of the Catholic population of Ireland has for several years been a subject of contention: the Protestants insisting that it only reached 4,500,000, while the Catholics brought it up to 6,500,000. All these statements are more or less coloured by party prejudices, and subject to suspicion. In 1821, a Protestant census exhibits total population of 6,801,488, of which, 4,380,000 were stated to be Catholics, and 1,963,487 declared Protestants. Mr Shaw Mason's returns from the clergy in 1814, showed a still greater disproportion in favour of the Protestant interest. Of late years, however, it is well-known that a greater number of Protestant families emigrated in consequence of the disturbed state of the country, and that the Catholic proprietors, with their dependents, spread themselves over the agricultural districts. In the old

corporate towns alone—and these are few in number—and in the north, will the disposition be found favourable to Protestant numerical strength. The Catholic association ordered returns to be made by the parish-priests, and an estimate was drawn from a few of these, which showed the Catholics as being nearly 5 to one. On the whole it may be assumed—for there is great difficulty in ascertaining the actual fact—that the present Catholic population in Ireland is about 5,500,000; and the Protestant population, including all dissenters, about 1,750,000. In Ireland no Catholic bishop is removable at the mere will of the pope; nor is any parish-priest removable at the mere will of his bishop. To effect such a removal there must exist a canonical cause, an accuser, regular trial, sentence, and ratification. In Ireland there are 33 Catholic archbishops and bishops; 52 deans and archdeacons; about 1,500 parish-priests; and 3000 curates. The benefices are 984 in number, averaging nearly 6000 souls in each. There is a chapel in every parish; besides many chapels of ease in the principal towns, where chapels have rapidly increased during the last ten years.

CHAP VII.—CHIEF CITIES.

CITY OF DUBLIN.] The metropolis of Ireland is most delightfully situated on the river Liffy, which divides the city nearly into two equal parts, and enters the bay of Dublin about a mile below it. From the point where the Liffy enters the bay, it is embanked with walls of free-stone, forming ranges of beautiful and spacious quays through the whole city, uninterrupted by any building nearer to its sides than the breadth of a wide street for $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles. Shipping of 200 tons come up to Carlisle Bridge, where the tide usually rises $12\frac{1}{2}$ feet. In its course through the city the river is crossed by six stone bridges, of which 5 are modern, and built in a handsome style of architecture. There is, besides, a metal bridge for foot-passengers, forming an elegant arch of 142 feet span. Dublin is likewise nearly insulated by two canals, which are crossed by numerous bridges, and communicate with the opposite extremities of the island.—This city in its form is nearly square, its length and breadth being each about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles; after the manner of most of the cities on the continent, it has a public road carried completely round it. The houses are generally of brick, and in the old part of the city the streets are irregular. Those that run parallel with the Liffy are uniform and capacious. In the modern part of the city this is invariably the case, most of the streets being from 60 to 80, some even 90 feet wide. There are several fine squares; that of Stephen's-green occupies 27 acres within the palisado, being nearly a mile in circuit, and though a part of the buildings are not modern, the aspect of the whole is strikingly magnificent. The vast number of villas and villages which cover the country round this metropolis, and are displayed by the slope of the ground down to the bay,—the beauty of the bay itself, which has frequently been compared to that of Naples,—the presence of the Dublin county mountains, and the peculiarly picturesque summits of those of Wicklow, in the back ground,—render its situation and *coup-d'œil* in the highest degree delightful. The population of Dublin in 1831 was 203,662 souls.²⁵

²⁵ There is, perhaps, no city which, in proportion to its size, can boast of a greater number of magnificent buildings. The *Castle*, completed in 1213, and situated near the

Municipal Government.] The municipality consists of a lord-mayor recorder, 2 sheriffs, 24 aldermen, and a common council, consisting of representatives from the 25 corporations. The police is under the direction of a chief commissioner, with 3 assistant commissioners, and 4 divisional justices. These are all aldermen.

Cork.] Next to Dublin in importance is Cork, which is situated upon the S. E. side of the island, about 14 miles from the sea, chiefly on a small island formed by the river Lee. The appearance of this city is generally neat, and many of the buildings denote the wealth of the place. Its manufactures are sail-cloth, sheeting, paper, leather, glue, glass, coarse cloth, &c., but the greater part of its trade consists in the export of provisions. The quantity of salted meat annually shipped from this port is very great. The harbour is capacious and safe. It is governed by a mayor, sheriffs, and common council. The population in 1831 was 107,007.

Limerick.] This city is situated upon the Shannon. It was formerly the second city in the island, but is now surpassed by Cork. It was formerly fortified, and reckoned a place of much strength. Few towns enjoy a more advantageous situation for trade. The manufactures are chiefly woollen and linen goods, and paper; but by far the most important part of the commerce here, as, indeed, in every part of Ireland, consists in the export of provisions. The inhabitants were reckoned in 1831 at 66,575.

Waterford.] Waterford is situated upon the Suir, and has an excellent harbour, with manufactures of linen, white glass, &c.; but provisions form the principal articles of export. The inhabitants in 1831 amounted to 28,821.

Belfast.] Belfast, seated on the bay of Carrickfergus, is inhabited chiefly by the descendants of Scottish emigrants. It is a neat well-built town, and carries on the greater part of the Irish trade with Scotland. Its commerce is extensive. Its manufactures, cotton, cambric, linen, sail-cloth, glass, earthenware, and sugar. The number of inhabitants in 1821 was 37,277.

centre of the city, is the seat of government. The Castle consists principally of 2 squares, containing apartments for the lord-lieutenant, public offices, &c. The Castle chapel, in the lower square, recently rebuilt, is an exquisite specimen of Gothic architecture.—Adjoining the Castle is the *Royal Exchange*, a beautiful edifice, with three fronts of the Corinthian order, and nearly 180 feet square. It is crowned by a dome in the centre of the building, and was completed at an expense of £40,000. Among the other great commercial establishments are the *Corn Exchange* or burgh quay; and the *Linen Hall*, a vast pile of buildings forming a magazine for the staple manufacture of Ireland.—The *Custom-house*, finished at an expense of £255,000, is a most magnificent structure, measuring 375 feet in front.—The *Stamp Office*, and *Post Office*, are both elegant structures.—Near the middle of Sackville-street stands *Nelson's Pillar*, a fluted column, raised to the height of 130 feet.—The *Parliament-house* is a fine specimen of architecture; the portico (of the Ionic order) is particularly elegant, and extends 147 feet. This superb pile is now converted into the *National Bank*, for which purpose it has been with the greatest effect arranged through the whole of its immense interior, which occupies not less than an acre and a half of ground.—In the centre of College-green, in front of the bank, is an equestrian statue of William III. erected in 1701.—On the east side of College green is the grand front of *Trinity College*, which is of the Corinthian order, and of Portland stone, extending 300 feet. The library is 270 feet within, and contains upwards of 100,000 volumes.—The *courts of justice*, and their necessary *public offices*, extend 433 feet in front: the offices form the wings, the hall of public justice is in the centre, its principal front being adorned with 6 Corinthian columns, supporting a pediment, beneath which is the great entrance into the several courts, which radiate from a circular area, 64 feet in diameter, crowned with a lofty dome, which forms a conspicuous object in almost every view of the city. *St Patrick's cathedral* is an antique building, which was erected in 1190, decorated with a steeple in 1370, and in 1750 with a very lofty spire.—*Christ's church*, the ancient cathedral of Dublin, built about 1038, is another venerable pile, containing some curious monuments.—*St George's church* is a noble modern edifice, with a magnificent front and lofty spire.

Londonderry.] This place is of high antiquity. It is said to have been burnt by the Danes in 783. It was often besieged and taken during the civil wars, and in 1688 made a memorable defence against king James. The walls and fortifications of this town are yet in a good state of repair; the cathedral is a fine piece of Gothic architecture. The Foyle river is here crossed by a bridge upwards of 1000 feet in length. The principal commerce is with the West Indies and America. The population in 1821 was 18,500 souls.

Armagh.] Armagh, the ancient *Regia*, was pillaged by the Anglo-Normans, and burnt in 1642 by Phelim O'Neil. It had a university in the middle ages which is said to have been sometimes attended by 7000 students. Its population in 1821 was 7,010.

Minor Towns.] The other towns of Ireland, though some of them are of considerable magnitude, are not so remarkable as to require a minute description.—*Kilkenny*, is well-built, and contains about 23,800 inhabitants.—*Galway*, situated upon a bay of the same name, conducts a brisk trade with the West Indies. The inhabitants are 28,000.—*Sligo* has 9,000, and *Kinsale* about 8,000 inhabitants. The other considerable towns of Ireland are *Newport*, *Castlebar*, *Dundalk*, *Wexford*, *Tuam*, and *Cashel*.

CHAP. VIII.—IRISH ISLANDS.

Of the islands upon the Irish coast, the following are a few of the most considerable.—*Lambey* is a small island to the N. of Dublin harbour.—*Magee island* is to the N. of Carrickfergus; and the *Maidens* are a small group still farther to the N.—*Rathlin*, to the N. W. of Fair Head Cape, once afforded a retreat to Robert I. of Scotland.—*Inistrahull* is at a small distance N. from the most northern point of Ireland.—To the S.W. is *Tory Island*; and to the S., upon the coast of Donegal, is the isle of *North Arrin*.—At the mouth of Donegal Bay, is the isle of *Inishmurry*. Passing the cape called the Mullet, *Achill*, the largest island upon the Irish coast, 12 miles long, and 10 broad, presents itself to the north of Clew Bay.—A little to the south is *Clare*; and after passing the mouth of the Shannon, at the entrance of Dingle Bay, are the *Great Blasquet*, and *Kielane* islands. The *Skelig Isles* are to the south; and the island *Clear*—well-known to mariners by its promontory, called Cape Clear—is situated near the most southern point of Ireland. Proceeding to the N.E. we find the *Saltee Islands*. These last are all of very small dimensions.

A great number of bold groups cluster, like the Cyclades, round the western coast of Ireland. Of these islands altogether, it has been calculated that there are not fewer than 500: the greater portion, however, are too diminutive to be laid down on any map of ordinary dimensions. Clew Bay, in Galway, contains at least 250, most of which are as rude and uncultivated, as though they had never been trodden by the foot of man. The extravagant tales of the peasantry declare that there are 360 in the Lough of Strangford, on the coast of Down. The western islands are inhabited by a race, supposed to be lineal descendants of the ancient natives of the mainland. The successive and devastating invasions of the Danes, from the middle of the 8th to the commencement of the 12th century, had enabled these Scandinavian savages to pour immense hordes of settlers

from the eastern channel, into the provinces of Leinster and Ulster. The natives, who were then celebrated for peaceful hospitality, and the cultivation of literature and religion, being deprived of their paternal habitations, and unable to maintain a contest with their more experienced enemies, fell back upon the wide forests and barren mountains of Connaught. Then came the tide of Anglo-Norman conquerors, which gradually rolled on-wards from east to west, and swept before it the miserable remnant of the ancient people, till the Atlantic received and sheltered, on its lonely rocks, those to whom the tyranny of man had left neither country nor home. They carried with them their native language, and religion, and laws. Nowhere is the Irish language spoken with so great purity ; which may perhaps be partly ascribed to the circumstance of the English tongue having never reached their ears. A native of this country might as well be placed among the people of Siberia, as among the children of these islands, so far as regards the chance of his language being understood.

A F R I C A.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION.

THE peninsula of Africa forms one of the great divisions of the world, and one the outlines of which are particularly well-defined. The African continent, unlike America, was known to the ancients; it was even the scene of some remarkable transactions 3000 years ago. Yet, notwithstanding its ancient celebrity, it is certain that little was ever known of its interior parts, and it is very doubtful whether the ancients had any knowledge of its southern extremity. Nor are the ancients much surpassed by the moderns in their acquaintance with this mysterious region. Our ships have circumnavigated its coasts for more than three centuries, and yet our knowledge of these districts is still very incomplete; while its interior still presents to the eye of science a blank in geography,—an unsolved problem in moral as well as physical science. The avarice of man, under the disguise of commercial enterprise, has contributed more perhaps than any other cause to lay open to human curiosity the remote regions of the globe;—but the rivers of Africa, although many of them are large and beneficent, have hitherto afforded no inlet to its central regions, and the trade of Europeans has been confined to narrow districts along the coast. Zeal for the propagation of religious opinions has been, in many instances, an extensive cause of geographical discovery;—yet missionary labours have added still less to our knowledge of this singular region than mercenary and baser motives. With the exception of Abyssinia, and that portion of South Africa which extends from the cape of Good Hope to Ruveechane, no part of Africa has yet been explored by the adventures of the religious. The march of Conquest herself has been arrested or turned aside by the fiery deserts which extend from Egypt to the Atlantic; and Science, although stimulated by baffled curiosity, has failed to surmount the barriers which here impede her progress. Among the manifold obstacles which arrest the traveller who seeks to explore new regions in this quarter of the globe, are the difficulties of his untried path, the burning heat of the climate, the uncertain supply of food and water, the danger arising from the continual presence of ferocious beasts, and the still greater danger to which the man of science is exposed from the superstition, the cupidity, and the cruelty of his own race in these uncivilized regions. The astronomer and mathematician encounter a formidable and often insurmountable obstacle to their labours of observation in the superstitious ignorance of the natives, who would regard their scientific operations as so many magical incantations; and there is even something in the very quality of the atmosphere which is opposed to their labours. Captain Roussin, who was despatched on an expedition of observation to the western coast of Africa, complained much of a certain dimness or

haziness in the northern part of the tropic of Cancer, which repeatedly 'interrupted his measurements.'¹ In the southern districts the position of the sun likewise renders astronomical observations extremely difficult; and the heat causes so great a refraction that the real position of the heavenly bodies is frequently miscalculated, especially when operating with instruments which are liable to be affected by heat. Topographical mistakes have likewise been abundantly committed by African travellers through their ignorance of the languages spoken by the natives. Thus we were at one time gravely informed of the existence of a kingdom called *Kassentai* in Guinea, which was forthwith identified with Ashantee by some of our African geographers. But it afterwards appeared that this word *kassentai* meant nothing more than, 'I do not understand you,' which had been the simple answer given by some negroes to a European querist.

This portion of our globe has also undergone considerable physical as well as moral revolutions. Many splendid remains of antiquity still attest that wealth and magnificence once existed here where we now behold only a wide and cheerless desert. Wherever water flows, vegetation will flourish and spread itself: but in many districts of Africa the springs which once fertilized the soil are dried up, and with them every trace of vegetable life has disappeared also. Many large rivers which seem in some period of remote antiquity to have received powerful tributaries from the northern countries of Africa are now dried up; while others, both in the north and south, are no longer supplied with a sufficient body of water to enable them to roll their way through thirsty deserts, with undiminished flood, to the ocean. Everywhere the barren sand seems to be obliterating the ancient features of this continent, and threatens to reduce all to one uniform, sterile desert.

We also apprehend that modern geographers and travellers have borrowed too slavishly from their predecessors in all that respects African geography. Thus, Jackson owes more to Chenier than one might suspect from the manner in which he affects to talk of him. Meredith's treatise on the coast of Africa is, in great part, a mere compilation from Isert and Bosman. Malte Brun disappoints the reader in every page of his African geography. Ali Bey himself—who was certainly not in want of opportunities for personal observation, and who is so much lauded by Burckhardt—repeatedly betrays gross ignorance of his subject. To mention one instance of his carelessness amongst many which it would be easy to expose: in describing the well-known African preparation of *coucoussou*, he makes use of the precise words of Leo Africanus, whose account of this highly prized dish, however correct it might be when he wrote, is certainly not at all applicable to the present state of the African art of cookery. Again, Sidi Amkebel, whom Don Badia adduces as his authority for affirming that the *Niger* at *Timbuctoo* flows towards the west, assured Gräberg that he never gave or could have given such information either to Don Badia or any one else. In general, the information furnished by natives respecting the geography of Africa, has proved exceedingly fallacious. One principal source of error in their case has been the different names applied by African negroes, and by Arabs, and even by tribes of the same nation, to the same object, town, or district of country. Thus

¹ This haze or obscurity seems to be occasioned by the quantity of finely pulverized sand, which the wind raises into the atmosphere in its passage across the wide deserts of this continent. It prevails throughout the greater part of the year; and during its continuance no star which is not stationed 30° above the horizon is visible to the eye.

we find the same country indicated by the very dissimilar names of *Dar Saleg*, *Mobba*, *Wara*, and *Waday*. Thus too we observe a town, which, when first visited by Mungo Park, was called *Kantspe*, receiving no other name from its own inhabitants, when he visited it a second time, than *Sisekando*.

Names.] Africa was called by the Greeks *Libya*; to the Romans it was known by its present name. A small province in the northern part—in more ancient times a Carthaginian district—to which the Romans applied the term *Africa Propria*, seems to have imparted its own name to the whole continent; like as the name *Asia*, originally applied to the peninsula of which Caria formed the western extremity, was gradually extended to the whole of that continent. Bochart derives the word *Africa* from a Punic word, signifying ‘an ear of corn’, with a supposed reference to the fertility of those parts of this continent which were known to the Phenicians. Others discover the derivation of the present appellation in the Latin *Apricus*, ‘sunny’,—or the Greek privative α and $\phi\epsilon\lambda\alpha\gamma$,—which may signify, ‘a burning clime.’ The term *Libya*—which most commonly denoted exclusively the maritime district between the Greater Syrtis and Egypt, but was sometimes used in the same extensive application as *Africa*—is supposed to have been of Hebrew origin, denoting that the inhabitants, the *Lubim* of the Old Testament, were placed under a burning sky.

Extent.] In point of superficial extent, Africa holds the next rank to America and Asia; in respect of civilization it occupies the lowest rank among the five great divisions of the globe. It presents the appearance of a vast peninsula united to the adjacent continent by the isthmus of Suez, situated at its N. E. extremity, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean. The equinoctial line divides Africa into two parts of nearly equal length. It extends from Cape Bon, in the Mediterranean, in N. lat. $37^{\circ} 4' 45''$, to the cape of Good Hope, in S. lat. $34^{\circ} 24'$. Thus measuring very nearly 72 degrees of latitude from N. to S., or 4,320 geographical, or 4,970 English miles. Its breadth at the equator is 4,140 geographical, or 4,760 English miles; but from Cape Verd in W. long. $51^{\circ} 40'$, to Cape Guardafui in E. long. $18^{\circ} 10'$, its breadth is nearly equal to its length. From the Mediterranean, where its breadth is already considerable, it becomes gradually broader until within a few degrees of the equator, between these two capes. It then contracts suddenly; and, passing southwards, narrows by degrees, until it terminates at the cape of Good Hope. The superficial extent of this vast region can of course be only approximatively estimated. Malte Brun, and the editors of the “*Dictionnaire Geographique Universel*,” estimate it at 1,750,000 French square leagues of 25 to a degree, or 13,430,000 British square miles; and Golbery at 1,600,000 of these leagues. Stein has calculated it at 511,803 German square miles, exclusive of the islands, which is less than either Ukert’s admeasurement or Gräberg’s. We subjoin the elements of the approximative calculations of the two latter geographers in German square miles:

	According to Ukert.	According to Gräberg
Egypt,	8,795	12,900
Tripoli, with Barca,	8,838	9,720
Tunis,	3,400	3,600
Algiers,	4,218	9,000
Morocco,	13,713	8,280
Carry forward,	38,964	43,560

	Brought forward,	38,964	43,560
Abyssinia,	.	15,300	16,200
Fungi, or Sennaar,	.	5,400	5,400
Fur,	.	6,120	6,120
British Africa,	.	6,164	6,460
Spanish do.	.	152	216
French do.	.	140	
Portuguese do.	.	245	4,680
Danish do.	.	11	
Island of Madagascar,	.	10,437	
Island of Hinguan,	.	35	
Unknown districts,	.	448,610	439,200
Total,		531,638	521,356

Thus according to Ukert the whole region of Africa has a superficial extent of 531,638 German, or 11,961,675 English square miles; but, without the large islands, admeasures 521,106 German, or 11,724,885 English square miles. Gräberg's calculation corresponds pretty closely with this, for in the above admeasurement he has excluded the islands. There is, however, a very considerable difference in some of the elements of the above calculations. British geographers have usually assigned 11,500,000 square miles to Africa, inclusive of its islands.

Coasts and Boundaries.] From the cape of Good Hope to the isthmus of Suez, the shores of the African continent are washed by the Indian ocean, which forms the channel of Mozambique, betwixt the mainland and the large island of Madagascar, which is usually regarded as a dependance of this part of the world. An arm of this ocean forms the Arabian gulf or Red sea, which separates Africa from Asia. The Atlantic Ocean bathes the southern and western shores. From the western extremity of the cape of Good Hope to the gulf of Guinea, in 5° N. lat., the coast forms a pretty regular line, inclining gently westwards. At the above parallel, the coast-line strikes out suddenly and more rapidly towards the W. Having reached, in Cape Verd, its extreme western point, it turns N.E., and pursues this direction to the straits of Gibraltar. The African coast-line, bounded by the Mediterranean, and running from W. to E., forms innumerable sinuosities, of which the most remarkable are: the gulf of Cabes, the gulf of Syrtis or Sydra, and the gulf of Alexandria. This immense maritime cincture thus almost isolates Africa from the rest of the world. In two points only is it nearly interrupted: namely, at the straits of Bab-el-Mandel, or the entrance to the Arabian gulf, and at the straits of Gibraltar, forming the entrance to the Mediterranean. But the only point in which a junction to any other part of the world is effected, is at the low sandy isthmus of Suez, betwixt the head of the Arabian gulf and the south-eastern extremity of the Mediterranean. The harbours and roadsteads of this continent are generally uninviting to the mariner; * and no gulf or inland sea opens a way to him into the interior. The gulfs of Guinea and the Syrtis are alike shunned by the navigator; and although the coasts of Guinea and Senegal present several mouths of rivers accompanied with islands, yet many formidable obstacles oppose themselves to their navigation for any distance from the coast. To the E. there are a number of small islands, and some mouths of rivers which may

* There are of course some exceptions—but they are very few indeed—to this observation. Captain Paddock, of the *Oswego*, came upon a large and commodious harbour not far, as he thinks, to the westward of Cape Nun, in which "hundreds of ships could ride at anchor in safety."

afford easier access into the interior. The coast washed by the Indian ocean lies low, like the opposite shores of Guinea; but a formidable terrace of arid mountains soon presents itself to the explorer of the interior.

PHYSICAL FEATURES.] If it were erroneous to say that Europe runs out into a point from Cape Finisterre to Cape St Vincent, it would be equally erroneous to affirm of Africa that it terminates in a point. The fact is, that this continent presents the form of an irregular parallelogram; and that the southern point—if point it may be called—extends nearly 10 degrees of longitude in breadth, with an inclination towards the N. Africa is certainly the most compact of the great divisions of the globe: appearing—to use Ritter's expression—‘like a trunk without limbs.’ Hence the periphery of the African continent is, in comparison with the superficial extent of the whole, much less than that of Asia, America, or Europe. These latter continents have their coasts elongated by being deeply indented with bays, capes, and necks of land; but this, as we have already seen, is not the case with Africa. There are even only a very few islands near the shores of this continent; and with the exception perhaps of Madagascar, none of them seem to be connected in physical structure with the adjacent continent, although this is the case with almost all islands in other quarters of the world. The isolated African islands are supposed by some geographers to be of volcanic origin.

General Configuration of the High Lands.] There are many extensive mountain-ranges in Africa; but their structure presents some singularities unobserved in other quarters of the globe. It is very probable that Africa has mountains high enough to be covered with perpetual snow even under the equator, but it is in general to be remarked that the African chains are more distinguished for their breadth than for their height. Those of them which attain any considerable elevation seem to do so by successive gradations, or in a series of terraces rising one above another. The whole of Southern Africa, from the southern coast of the cape of Good Hope, rises by a series of steps or terraces, northwards to the 5th and 10th degrees of northern latitude; and most probably forms a connected plateau descending on both sides, in a series of terraces, to the Indian ocean on the E., and the European and Southern Atlantic ocean on the W. As far as our present knowledge extends, this plateau is not intersected, either in its length or breadth, by any considerable stream; and consequently nowhere presents any extensive valley or deep cut. But, as all attempts to penetrate into the central districts of this highland country have hitherto proved unsuccessful, our actual geographical knowledge of it is confined to its outskirts.

On the S. the boundary of the Great African plateau coincides with the sea-coast. It terminates here in high and barren plains called the Karroos, and in steep mountains with flat summits, one of which is called the Table Mountain, and another the Lion's Rump. At the opposite extremity of the plateau we are only acquainted with the declivities of the Alpine regions of Abyssinia on the E., and with those of the Kong Mountains in the Foolah and Mandingoe territories, on the W. The northern districts of the Great plateau have been rendered inaccessible to European travellers by the continual wars of the Abyssinians and Gallas, and by the slave-expeditions of the Darfoorians and others, against the mountain-tribes of Donga, on the sources of the Abavi. In the countries nearer to the equator, on both coasts, the local climate—not to speak of other hindrances—opposes obstacles invincible perhaps to European discovery, as we are led

to apprehend from the fate of Nichol's attempt, and captain Tuckey's most unfortunate expedition.

The mass of high lands which we have now described, gives to the whole of Southern Africa its characteristic form. This nucleus of the African continent branches out a little on the N.E. and N.W.; but seems to contain few long and high ridges in the interior, so that if the sea were to rise 3 or 4 miles above its present level, Africa, stript of all the low lands which line its coasts, would perhaps present the appearance of a comparatively flat island in the midst of the ocean. The extreme edge of the plateau is for the most part skirted with sandy plains; but in some places presents fruitful and well-peopled districts. The two principal rivers of Africa—the Nile, and the Joliba or Niger, have their main sources somewhere in its most interior northern declivity; but it would seem that the African streams of the second and third class, have their origin only in the outer or inferior terraces of the plateau.³

The Atlas Chain.] The configuration of all the known chains of Africa supports this general view of its surface. The chain of mountains which lines nearly the whole of the north coast consists of a series of five or six small chains rising one behind another in the terrace-like form, throughout a large portion of Barbary. This chain is known under the general appellation of the Atlas. It stretches between 28° and 37° of N. lat. It commences at the bottom of the gulf of the Great Syrtis, and runs N. to Cape Bon. From this point it runs W. to Fez, where it turns S.W. till it reaches Cape Nun. The plateau which forms the desert of Barca, separates the Atlas system from the mountains of Egypt. But some geographers insist on prolonging the appellation of Atlas to Mount Tcheby, and the mountains of Gerboda and Haroutch—the *Mons Ater* of the ancients—lying farther eastwards. The Atlas chain attains its greatest elevation between Fez and Morocco. That part of the range which overlooks the plains of Morocco has been stated to rise to the altitude of 13,200 feet above the level of the sea. But this elevation must be exceeded by the mountains on the W. of Abyssinia, in the province of Samen, which, according to Mr Salt, have their summits covered with perpetual snow, under a burning sun, and in the torrid zone. The Atlas—as we have already stated—does not form a *cordillera*, or a continuous chain of mountains protracted in a single line; it is composed of several chains, and some isolated groupings. These unequal masses, differing in form and direction, are separated in some instances by fruitful plains abounding in cereal products; in others, by sterile deserts, whose surface is covered with burning sand, or sprinkled with ragged fragments of black rock interspersed with patches of salt; and in others by green and lovely valleys,

³ Lacede in his "Memoire sur le Grand Plateau de l'interieur de l'Afrique," published in the "Annales du Museum d'Hist. Nat." vol. vi. p. 284, endeavours to prove that the African plateau extends only from the 10th parallel of northern latitude to the 20th of southern. But it certainly *first* begins to descend under the 34th southern parallel, at the elevated steppes of the Betschuans, in the vicinity of the Orange river and the Karroos. French geographers have likewise given an enumeration of nine or ten different independent chains of mountains, which we can only regard as related and integral portions of the great plateau-system. For the country between these chains or ridges is uniformly more elevated than that on the extreme edge nearest the coast, and the masses of these ridges are in every physical respect very insignificant when compared with the body of the plateau itself. Lacede's idea of the extent of the African plateau is too limited; and several of his hypothetical conjectures are evidently erroneous. We may here recommend to the attention of the scientific reader, H. Lichtenstein's excellent map of Africa, engraved by Gottholdt, and published in 1811.

watered by limpid streams, and fruitful in olives, oranges, pomegranates, almonds, peaches, and apricots. The rivers and streams which water these regions in the rainy season are converted into headlong torrents. The mountain-heights themselves—excepting the loftiest summits—are covered with thick gloomy forests inhabited by leopards and other ferocious animals, and also by a species of enormous serpents peculiar to this part of Africa. The forest-trees which most commonly occur on the Atlas, are the wild olive, the cedar, the white poplar, the oak, the cork-tree, the Phœnician juniper, and the turpentine-tree. The air is pure in these regions, and the temperature mild. The rains begin to fall in October, and continue at intervals until the end of April; a serene atmosphere prevails during the rest of the year. Vegetation commences in the month of January, and a full foliage is effected by the month of March. The aspect of the Atlas varies greatly in different parts. Beheld from Morocco it presents the appearance of a group of glittering pyramidal masses; and in another quarter nothing is seen but green and woody summits. The soil of the Atlas is calcareous. Silver, iron, copper, lead, and antimony, might be wrought here. The inhabitants of the Atlas differ in language, origin, and physical conformation, both from the tribes of Turkish, Arabian, or European descent, which inhabit the plains towards the N., and from the Moors and Negroes on the S. and in the interior.

The different portions of the Atlas have received general denominations. The *Great Atlas* is the range in which the highest summits occur, extending from the bottom of the gulf of Gabes to Cape Ger. The section of the Great Atlas, comprised betwixt Fez and Morocco, where the chain attains its greatest elevation, is called the *High Atlas*. According to Jackson, the High Atlas commences at Djebel d'Zatoute, near to Choukta, in Lower Susa, and runs to the distance of 30 miles E. of Morocco. Farther to the eastwards, the Great Atlas joins itself to the mountains of Gadamis and Haroudje-el-Acouad which surround the grand Syrtis, but are of much less elevation. The *Little Atlas* is a chain of mountains which approaches nearer to the coast, and runs sometimes parallel to the Great Atlas. This chain commences at Tangiers, and running westwards is prolonged, by the heights of *Uselet*, to Cape Bon, the *Promontorium Mercurii* of the ancients. It then bends around the gulf of Cabes and the Great Syrtis in the *Gharian* and *Terhounan* hills; and to the S. of Mesurata, is connected with the Black Haroutch by the *Mezdah* and *Oriadan* mountains. The Little Atlas is united to the Great Atlas by several transverse chains, of which the most elevated are the *Jurjuras* to the E. of Algiers, and the *Errijs* between Fez and Tangiers. Eastwards from Tangiers, at the point of the coast nearest to Europe, is the ancient *Abyla*, or the Mount of the Seven Brothers, the Cape Ceuta of the moderns. It has received from some Spanish authors the name of *Sierra Ximiera*, or *Sierra de las Monas*, 'the Mountain of Apes.' All the chains which unite the Great and the Little Atlas, as well as those which run out from the southern flanks of the former and sink into the desert, form different basins, from which flow short unnavigable streams, which precipitate themselves on the W. into the Atlantic; on the N. into the Mediterranean; and on the S. are lost in lakes or evaporated in the sands of the desert. Among the latter, the *Ghir*, the *Ziz*, the *Tafilet*, the *Fililly*, and the *Draha*, are known to us by name, but very imperfectly as to their exact courses.⁴

⁴ The name *Atlas*, although employed by the Greeks and Romans from a very early period, is not that by which the inhabitants themselves distinguish these mountains.

Egyptian Mountains.] At some distance to the E. of the Haroutch mountains, and in the same line, are the mountains of *Magarah* and *Mocatham*, situated at the northern extremity of the Libyan chain, which runs along the western bank of the Nile as far as the cataracts. The country between the Nile and the Red sea is covered with mountains, and declines gradually from Abyssinia towards Egypt.

Abyssinian Mountains.] Abyssinia is an elevated alpine district, overlooked by a loftier range of high lands towards the S. and intersected on the W. by several chains known to us only by report under the names of *Gibbel-Hikel-Masur*, *Gibbel Addeheb*, and *Gibbel-al-Komer*, in which are

They call them *Daran*; and Pliny says that, in his time, they called them *Dyris*. *Ty* and *Tram*, in Sanscrit, signify 'a mountain'; and the Phœnician *Tur* has a similar signification. It is probable that the Asiatic *Taurus* and the African *Dyris* are of the same origin. That part of the High Atlas which lies to the S. of Fez in the province of *Tedla*, is called *Tedla* by Leo Africanus. Perhaps this latter name was but a corruption of *Atlas*, which the same writer, however, informs us is derived from the Arabic *Attis*, 'snow.' The Arabians, he adds, call the Atlas *Djebel Attis*, that is, 'the snowy mountains.' Edrisi applies the term *Lemta* to the whole Atlas. Since Leo Africanus and Marmol wrote, Shaw is the only traveller who has thrown any light on the geography of the eastern parts of the Atlas, that is, on that portion of it which belongs to the kingdom of Algiers and Tunis; but, after all, we know little more about this chain than what has been transmitted to us by the Arabian geographers of the 15th and 16th centuries. In the first ages of Eastern navigation, the mariners might give the name of *Jurjura* to the Atlas, from its most apparent summit. After they had passed the columns of Hercules, and ascertained the extent of the chain, they might call it the *Atlas* or *Great Atlas*. Ptolemy is the first among the ancients who employs the terms *Great* and *Little Atlas*. The *Great Atlas* of Ptolemy was the mountains near Cape Nun; and his *Little Atlas* the mountains directly opposite to Cape Cantin and Cape Blanco. The *Atlas* mentioned in the *Odyssey* was the *Jurjura*. It appears that Herodotus was only acquainted with the *Little Atlas*: for he makes the *Atlas* begin at the *Caber promontorium* or Cape Spertal. Hanno and Polybius, however, have both placed the extremity of the *Great Atlas* opposite to the Fortunate Isles or the Canaries. But Strabo, though writing long after these authors, made the *Atlas* terminate, as Herodotus had done, at Cape Spertal. The Romans acquired their chief knowledge of this chain during the expedition of the consul Suetonius Paulinus, in the 1st century of the Christian era. Paulinus traversed the chain in his expedition against the tribes who inhabited the valley watered by the *Ghir*. The ancients greatly exaggerated the height of *Atlas*; and made it the abode of satyrs and 'chimeras dire,' as well as the theatre of the exploits of Hercules and Perseus. Their imagination also personified this mountain-chain in the figure of a gigantic old man with a white beard, supporting the firmament on his shoulders,—an idea which Virgil has beautifully illustrated in these well-known lines:

—Janque volans apicem et latera ardua cernit
Atlantæ duri, cœlum qui vertice fuleit;
Atlantis, cinctum assidue cui nubibus atris
Piniferum caput et vento pulsator et imbri;
Nix humeros infusa tegit; tum flamina mento
Præcipitant senis, et glacie riget horrida barba. —Æneid. iv. 246—252.

Our ignorance regarding this great African chain is the more surprising when we consider that there are numerous ports or passes leading through the Great Atlas, by which frequent intercourse is maintained with the interior. The most western of these passes is that of *Bebasuan*, which leads to Tarodant, and thence to Wadnoun and Tatta. It is by this pass that caravans travel to Timboctou. It is bounded by very high mountains, and perpendicular precipices and rocks, which are covered with snow during a part of the year. The wooded region at the foot of these heights is the abode of lions and other wild animals.—Farther towards the E., and S. from Morocco, are two other passes which also conduct to Tatta.—A fourth exists near the sources of the Tansift, in the *Zayan* mountains; it leads directly to *Tedla* or *Taflet*.—N. E. from this latter pass we find another very celebrated one, situated immediately S. from Fez, which leads, by Mount *Ougres*, to *Taflet* and *Draha*. It was by this pass that caravans, in the 15th century, travelled to Soudan and the coasts of Guinea.—It appears that, S. from Algiers, there exists a pass near Mount *Aures*, leading into the country of *Zah* and the *Biledalgerid*. But the Algerines, and likewise the Tunisians, generally travel to Timboctou by the *Gharian* Mount, or the *Gorianos*, to the S. of *Cabea*.—Three passes lead into Fezzan, through the *Terhouanan* mountains S. E. from Tripoli, and across the *Haroudje-el-Abiad* or 'White Haroutch.'—The *Jurjura* is traversed by a remarkable defile called *Biben*, or 'the Iron Gate,' which is contracted in some places to a few feet in width. The regency of Algiers is compelled to pay an annual tribute to the wild Arab tribes who inhabit this fastness for liberty to travel through the pass.

the sources of the *Bahr-el-Abiad*. All accounts agree in asserting that many mountain-ridges run out from Abyssinia into the S. of Fur, where numerous rivers take their rise, and gold is found in abundance. The lateral chain of the Red Sea, or the *Troglodytic* chain, resembles Atlas in its calcareous steepes.

Eastern Mountains.] Several chains run from N. to S. along the eastern coast. One of these, the *Lupata* chain, or *Spina Mundi*, is perhaps connected on the N. with the mountains of Abyssinia. It seems to reach from Cape Guardafui to the cape of Good Hope, where it terminates in the Karroos. Whether any branches run out from this system westwards into the interior, is not known to us. It contains the plateaus of *Adel* and *Mooranga*.

Western Mountains.] On the western coast several chains run from N. to S. Among these are the mountains of *Cape Negro*, the *Chrystal* mountains, the *Saltpetre* mountains E. from Congo, and the *Sierra Complida* N. from Zaire. The mountains on the continent, opposite Fernando Po were measured trigonometrically by captain Owen, and found to be 17,000 feet above the level of the sea, at the distance of 20 miles from the shore.—They are covered with perpetual snow.

Mountains of Sierra Leone.] Several parallel chains occur in Sierra Leone, which is a mountainous country; and northward, from this district to the Senegal, we find a series of mountains and table-lands rising in successive terraces as we recede from the coast.

Central Chain.] M. Walckenaer is of opinion that the most elevated African mountain-system must occur about the centre of the continent, and stretch across it, so as to divide the basins of the Nile, the Misselad, and the Djin, from those of the Joliba and Gambarou. Major Rennel affirms that a very high central chain must cross Africa from E. to W. beginning at Cape Guardafui and ending about Cape Sierra Leone. The Kong mountains will form the western extremity of this chain. Towards the E. it rises to the elevation of perpetual snow in a torrid region; but it is not certain whether it is connected in this quarter with the mountains of the Moon on the S. of Abyssinia. With regard to this central chain, however, we are constrained to confess, after all that has been written about it, that we are abandoned to vague and painful conjectures,—vague, from the nature of the information on which they are founded,—and painful, from the intense interest which our scanty information concerning regions so remote, so sublime, and withal so mysterious, naturally incites. The ardour of avarice and the enthusiasm of missionary zeal, appear to have led to transient glimpses of them; but all access to the foot of science has hitherto been denied by hordes of barbarians and oceans of burning sand. The partial accounts of these regions furnished by Bruce, Brown, Jackson, and other travellers, are far from being satisfactory, or even harmonizing among themselves. Malte Bran conceives that the mountains of the Moon may be lost in the central plateau of south-eastern Africa; or, if extended W. may terminate about Cape Gonsalvo. The S. winds of Darfour are the hottest and dryest, and bring along with them clouds of dust. This shows that there is no high chain immediately to the S. of Darfour. Again, neither Ptolemy nor Leo Africanus actually describe a central chain: they only talk of high mountains without mentioning their extent. Admitting the existence of such a chain, Africa would still be a plateau consisting of a series of successive terraces; the plateau would only be cut in two by a central wall. And, if Africa is one immense

flat mountain rising on all sides by steps or terraces, we can easily conceive that it will not give origin to such narrow-pointed peninsulas and long chains of related islands as other continents exhibit: for these peninsulas and chains of islands are usually prolongations of the mountain-chains which extend across a continent. In Africa—as already noticed—nothing like this connexion appears, excepting perhaps the case of the Canary islands.

Deserts. The Sahara.] The wide expansion of sandy desert almost every where to be met with throughout this continent forms a prominent feature in the physical geography of Africa. The barren wastes in this division of the globe are not confined, as with us, to the extent of a few miles surrounded by regions of greater fertility; they are extensive sand-oceans containing only a few scattered isle-like spots fit for human habitation. Destitute of moisture, the sands of which they are composed is borne about on every blast, or carried forward with an undulating motion having no distant resemblance to the waves of the sea, but still more destructive to the helpless traveller who is overtaken by them. The largest of these extraordinary regions is that called, by way of eminence, the *Sahara* or 'Desert,' which is upwards of 2600 miles in length, and 750 in breadth, running from E. to W. almost across the whole breadth of northern Africa. There are in the Sahara a few fertile spots of scanty verdure; but it is in general desolate beyond the wildest wastes of European land. "No cooling breezes"—to quote the words of two recent travellers,—“freshen the air,—the sun descends in overpowering force,—the winds scorch as they pass, and bring with them billows of sand, rolling along in masses frightfully suffocating, which sometimes swallow up whole caravans and armies, burying them in their pathless depths.” Vegetative steppes encircle the Sahara; those towards the S. being watered by the Niger and intersected by the vanguards of the high lands or great plateau already described, stretching under the 15th and 20th parallels; and those on the N. or the steppes of Biledulgerid, being cut by the ridges of the Atlas. We shall devote a chapter, in our account of Barbary, to the Sahara.

Sinking of North Africa.] M. Cordier informs us, that, according to observations made by the French savans at the ruins of Tanis, the northern coast of Africa appears to be sinking at the rate of one foot in a century. If this observation be correct, it follows, that, supposing the world to exist for a sufficient length of time, the Mediterranean will ultimately be united with the Indian ocean; and the Red sea will reach to the mountains under the 10th parallel.

Lakes.] The African continent—as far as we yet know—does not possess any inland seas. The *Tchad* is described by Messrs Denham and Clapperton, as a vast irregular expanse of water in about the 13th parallel of N. lat. It receives two rivers: the Yeou from the W. and the Shary from the S. The latter is a large stream, being about 600 yards broad at its point of junction with the lake. The Tchad recedes and advances with the rainy season. It abounds in fish; and the country around it is clothed with all the splendour of tropical vegetation. Major Denham was obliged to leave 140 miles of the E. side of this lake unexplored: consequently it remains uncertain what rivers flow into it or issue from it in that quarter.—There is a lake to the W. of the Tchad, near Timbuctou, called *Debo* or *Dibbie*; and some travellers speak of a lake called *Non*, and of another called *Fitre*, as existing in this quarter.—On the boundaries of Tunis and Algiers, the lake *Londejah* occurs.—In Egypt there are

the lake *Kerun* and the *Natron lakes*; and in Abyssinia, the lake of *Dembea*, which is said to be intersected by the *Bahr-el-azrek* or 'Blue river.'—Two large lakes are mentioned by some geographers as existing in South Africa. From one of these, near the W. coast, the Zaire or an arm of it, is said to flow; and it has been described as containing several fertile islands. Nearly opposite to this lake, on the eastern coast, and about 10° south of the equator, another large lake called the *Maravi* is said to exist, which is nearly 300 miles in length, but does not exceed 45 in breadth. The existence of this lake has suggested that of a second Niger in the interior of Eastern Africa.

RIVERS.] It is not wonderful that under a tropical sun, and amid a thirsty soil, many African streams should disappear during summer; but a mystery altogether impenetrable still hangs over several of the great rivers of this continent. The outlet of the Niger or Joliba is yet unknown; the outlets of the Bornou and the Khullah, the Misselad in Nigritia, and the Djid or Djedyd in the Zab country, are equally unknown to us.

The Nile.] The description of the Nile can hardly be separated from that of Egypt; we only mention this river here for the purpose of recommending Rennel's map exhibiting the progress of discovery in North Africa, published in 1802, and Ritter's African maps, as exhibiting the course of this river in the most ample and satisfactory manner.

The Senegal.] The Senegal river has its source in the high lands of the Mandingoe terrace, between the sources of the Niger on the E., and those of the Gambia on the W. Mollien—a young Frenchman, who explored the sources of the Senegal and Gambia in 1818—differs in several particulars of his report regarding these rivers from that of Mungo Park. Mollien affirms that the Senegal rises in the Kong mountains, and flows westwards, along the southern limits of the Sahara, through the kingdom of Gallam, where it receives the Kokoro and the Falamah, and forms the cataracts of Goormah and Feloo. Beyond these falls, it assumes the appearance of a placid and majestic stream; rolling its mighty flood, with a motion scarcely perceptible, through a vast plain. It then turns N.W. and divides itself into two branches, forming the islands of Bilbas and Morphil. It next bends its course westwards, and discharges itself by one broad mouth into the Atlantic, in about 16° 5' N. lat. The Senegal, like the Nile, takes its rise at a great distance from the coast. Both rivers divide themselves into branches near their embouchure, and form islands which are more fertile than any part of their banks; and this fertility is the result in both of periodical overflowings, during which a quantity of fresh vegetable earth is always deposited on the flooded surface of the islands. In Egypt, however, the N. and N.E. winds, being cooled in their passage across the sea, and over the snows of Lebanon, preserve a moderate temperature in the districts lying along the river, except during a few weeks of summer. But the country through which the Senegal flows is exposed to the almost constant action of an E. wind, which, blowing across the burning surface of the Sahara, attains to such a temperature as renders the atmosphere scarcely respirable. The ascent of the Senegal is opposed both by wind and current; that of the Nile is aided by the N. wind which carries vessels rapidly up to Thebes, and the descent of the Egyptian river is rapidly accomplished by the aid of the current. At the mouth of the Senegal there is a shifting bar, likewise, which prevents the entrance of vessels drawing more than 10 feet of water. The Feloo rock also stops the upper navigation of the river for at least seven months of

the year: during the remaining five, the river being flooded obliterates this barrier. The banks of the Senegal become highly picturesque when we ascend 140 miles from the sea. Bordered with heights clothed in rich and picturesque foliage, the ascent of this river would form one of the most interesting voyages in the world, were the charms of its navigation not far more than counterbalanced by the deadly miasmata which the ill-fated mariner too often breathes, and the hideous presence of crocodiles and noxious reptiles which swarm in the river or upon its banks. The total course of the Senegal is above 800 miles. It was long confounded with the Niger.

The Gambia.] M. Mollien discovered the sources of the Gambia in the country of Fouta-Dialon, a little to the southward of those of the Rio Grande, in $10^{\circ} 36'$ N. lat. It rises in a thick wood, which is regarded by the natives as the residence of spirits, in the midst of a valley nearly enclosed by the barren mountains of Badet. After running a few leagues eastwards, it turns N., and preserves that direction to $13^{\circ} 22'$ N. lat., where it changes its direction, and runs southwards to the parallel of $11^{\circ} 18'$, and to within 17 leagues of its source. It then takes a general N.W. direction to the latitude of $14^{\circ} 30'$; and finally, after a circuitous route, discharges itself into the Atlantic, between Cape St Mary, and the isle of Sangue-mar. This river receives a number of tributary streams. The Ba-Creek, the Niolocoba or Neolacaba, one of the Nericoes issuing from the lake Dendonde-thiali, the Nialico, and the Nani-jar, join it from the right; and the Pore, the Ielata, and the Eropina, from the left. A little below the confluence of the latter stream, the Gambia sends out a branch, called the Casamansa, which, by several natural canals, communicates with the Rio St Domingo. At its embouchure, the Gambia is about 7 leagues broad; it contracts to one league in the neighbourhood of Albrede, and preserves this latter breadth as far as the falls of Barraconda, or to about 120 leagues from its mouth, to which distance it is navigable by vessels of 150 tons; and for nearly one-half of that distance it is navigable by ships of war carrying 40 guns. At Barraconda the bed of the river is interrupted by a range of rocks which runs across it; above this barrier the river winds through a flat country. Like the Nile and Senegal, it is subject to annual inundations; but while the Senegal is only fully navigable in the rainy season, the Gambia cannot be navigated except in the dry season. The rains give it an enormous increase of depth, but at the same time such inordinate weight and rapidity of current that no vessels can stem it. The course of this river has been estimated at 610 miles. The Rio Grande, the Rio Mesura-Mesurado, the Rio Volta, and some other rivers of the coast of Guinea, will be described in the topography of that region.

The Niger or Quorra.] Until the expedition of the Landers in 1830 there was not a more difficult problem in geography than to determine the course of the Niger. Many attempts had been made to do so both in ancient as well as modern times, but all had left us involved in the darkness of conflicting theories and contradictory reports. The very direction of this river was for a long period a debateable question. The Arabs of the middle ages attributed to the Niger a westward course to 'the Sea of Darkness,' or the Atlantic. They also conceived that the Niger and the Nile sprang from the same origin. Leo Africanus, however, acknowledges that some geographers had made the Niger run from W. to E., and terminate in a great lake. This was in fact the opinion of Herodotus 2000 years before; and in this opinion Ptolemy had coincided. The Portuguese, on seeing the Senegal,

the Gambia, and other great rivers proceeding from the unknown interior of Africa, discharge themselves into the Atlantic, conceived that these rivers might be the mouths of the Niger itself, and therefore gave it a westward course. It was reserved for our countryman, Park, to decide the question as to the direction of the Niger in favour of the old Grecian geographer. On the 21st of July, 1796, that intrepid traveller beheld, from the heights of Sego, "the majestic Niger flowing slowly from west to east." Equally unsettled were the early notions as to the *source* of this river: for whilst some believed it to originate in the mountains of Mauritania, others affirmed that it issued from a lake to the S. of Bornou; and others, as we have hinted, identified its fountain-head with that of the Nile. It was decided by Major Laing, from observation, that the great central river of Africa has its source near Mount Lamba, in the country of the Soulimas, on the northern declivities of the Kong mountains, between 9° and 10° W. of Greenwich, and at an elevation of 1638 feet above the level of the Atlantic. But though the source of the Niger was thus determined, whilst that of the Nile remained unknown, it was still a problem equally difficult of solution,—what was the direction, and where the termination of its course? The successive labours of subsequent travellers had thrown no light on the subject, and the deficiency of information was attempted to be supplied by the aid of ingenious conjecture. One supposed it to join the Nile of Egypt. Another conducted it to the lake of Wangara, which he made its termination. Whilst another, in his turn, improved as he thought on the idea, by conducting it through that extensive swamp, to the Bahr-al-Ghazelle, or river of antelopes, (the Ghir of Ptolemy,) and thence through the sands of Bilmah, to the Mediterranean. A fourth conjecture conducted it to the Atlantic, under the name of Zaire; whilst a fifth, started by Reichard, in 1803, and supported with great ingenuity and research, by Mr M'Queen, conducted it to the Bight of Benin. —This last conjecture is now verified, and our unfortunate countryman, Mr Park, who had traversed the Niger as far down as Bousa, within 6 degrees of the Atlantic, was in the fair road of realizing all his hopes, when he met his unhappy fate in the rapids opposite Bousa. The discoveries of Captain Clapperton had clearly proved that the Niger ran in a S. E. direction to the Atlantic; and whilst at Hio, the capital of Youriba, he learned that the Niger ran two days' journey to the East, and that consequently, its course to the Bight of Benin was no longer doubtful. This was in February, 1826, but his subsequent death, in August, 1827, at Sockatoo, prevented for a time all further progress. So much information was now gained upon this subject, that nothing more was required to settle it beyond all dispute, than to sail down the river from Bousa—the point which Park had reached—and thus ascertain the further line of direction of its course, and where it entered the sea. The two brothers, Landers—one of whom had been Captain Clapperton's servant, and accompanied him in that capacity to Sockatoo, and had there performed the last sad duties to his deceased master—were accordingly despatched by the secretary of state, first to Cape-Coast-Castle, and thence to Badagray, in January, 1830. Agreeably to their orders they were to take the former land-route from Badagray to Bousa, and thence to Yaori, and there to embark on the stream, and not to quit it till they reached its termination. On the 31st of March, the two brothers commenced their over-land journey. On the 27th of June, they arrived by water at Yaori, at which place the Niger or Quorra appears to arrive by

a S. E. course from Tombuctoo. On the 20th of September the Landers left Bouassa and proceeded down the river, which runs due S. At Rabba, the river begins to run decidedly to the S. E. and pursues that course to Kacunday in $8^{\circ} 30'$ E. long. and $8^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat. From Kacunday the river runs due S. to its junction with the Tshadda. After the confluence of these two streams, the river varies from two to five and six miles wide in the time of the periodical inundations; it also takes a S. W. course through the mountains. At Kirree the Quorra sends off a branch for the first time, so that Kirree may be regarded as the apex or head of its delta; the uppermost branch goes off to the S. W. to Benin, and is the Rio Formosa, a most western mouth of the river. The main stream runs S. S. W. to Eboe, where it expands into a lake, from which it issues in three branches, the middle branch or Rio Nun being the main stream, and entering the sea at Cape Formosa. In its further course downwards, the Nun sends off four other branches. The whole course of the Niger is about 1440 geographical or 1660 British miles. The delta occupies a base of about 250 miles in extent. By the discovery of the course and termination of the long-sought Niger, a way is now opened up into the interior of Africa, which we are sure will be pursued by future travellers. There cannot now be a doubt that by means of steam-vessels the various branches and main stream of the Quorra will be ascended with ease, and that in the season of the periodical swell, steam-boats may ascend to Tombuctoo, and carry thither the productions and the civilization of Europe. Instead of penetrating by way of the Gambia, or Senegal rivers, as formerly, or by the way of the Sahara from the Mediterranean, future explorers, whether merchants or missionaries, will take the course of the Quorra.

The Congo.] The Congo flows into the Atlantic in $6\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ S. lat. Captain Tuckey ascertained the mouth of this river, beginning at Fathomless Point, to be about 3 miles in breadth, with a main depth of 40 fathoms, and an average flow of about $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour. It rises in the interior of the country, and flows through Angola. We shall subjoin in a note the arguments which the editor of Captain Tuckey's narrative has advanced in support of the Captain's opinion that the Congo flows from the great inland lake of Wangara, or, in other words, is identical with the Niger.*

* "It is evident"—says the editor—"that Captain Tuckey, in the latter part of his journey, could only put down a few brief notes to refresh his memory, which, from his exhausted state, on his return to the vessels, he was wholly unable to enlarge or explain: and thus the reasoning on which he had built his hypothesis is lost to the world; he lamented, it seems, when on his death-bed, that he could not be permitted to live, to put in order the remarks he had collected in tracing upwards this extraordinary river. Unfortunately none of the party has escaped to supply this deficiency; the solidity, however, of Captain Tuckey's conclusion is not shaken, but rather corroborated, by what is known of physical facts and the geographical probabilities, as connected with Northern Africa. These may be briefly stated:

"In the tropical regions the rains generally follow the sun's course, and are not at their height till he approaches the tropics; hence arises the exhausted state of the lakes of Wangara in the months of May, June, and July, and their overflowing in the middle and latter end of August, according to the observations of the Arabian geographers; and this late flooding of the lakes is obviously owing to the long easterly course of the Niger, collecting into its channel all the waters from the northward and the southward, as it proceeds along. If, then, the ebb and flood of the Wangara lakes depend on the state of the Niger, it will follow, on the supposition of the identity of that river and the Zaire, that the flood and ebb of the latter, to the southward of the line, must correspond with the ebb and flood of the lakes of the Wangara. The existence of these lakes has never been called in question, though their position has not been exactly ascertained; but supposing them to be situated somewhere between the 12th and the 15th degrees of northern latitude, the position usually assigned to them in the charts, and that the southern outlet is under or near the 12th parallel, the direct distance between that and the spot where Captain Tuckey first observed the Zaire to rise, may be taken at about

The Orange River.] The Orange river is a South African stream descending from the Snow mountains. It may be said to commence at Campbell's Dorp, 600 miles directly E. from its mouth, where two rivers of the same name, but distinguished by the initials *nu* and *ky*, the *Nu-Gariiep*, and *Ky-Gariiep*, otherwise the Black and Yellow Gariiep unite, and flow into a basin formed on one side by the chain of the mountains of Kaop, on the other by the Long mountains, and those of Kamhanni which Burchell passed over. It first runs N. and then W. to the neighbourhood of Pella, the first town of the Namacquas. Our accounts regarding the farther course of this river towards the W. are extremely vague. It would appear that though it reaches the ocean during the wet season, in the dry

1200 miles, which, by allowing for the windings of the river, and some little difference of meridian, cannot be calculated at less than 1600 miles.

"Admitting, then, that the lakes of Wangara should overflow in the first week of August, and the current in the channel of outlet move at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour, which is the average rate at which the Zaire was found to flow above the narrows, the flooded stream would reach that spot in the first week in September, and swell that river exactly in the way, and at the time and place, as observed by Captain Luckey. No other supposition, in fact, than that of its northern origin, will explain the rise of the Zaire, in the dry season; and if its identity with the Niger, or, which amounts to the same thing, its communication with Wangara, should be disputed, Captain Luckey's hypothesis, of its issuing from some other great lake, to the northward of the line, will still retain its probability. The idea of a lake seems to have arisen from the 'extraordinary quiet rise of the river, which was from three to six inches in 24 hours. If the rise of the Zaire had proceeded from rains to the southward of the line, swelling the tributary streams, and pouring, in mountain torrents, the waters into the main channel, the rise would have been sudden and impetuous; but coming on as it did in a quiet and regular manner, it could proceed only from the gradual overflowing of a lake.

"There is, however, another circumstance in favour of a river issuing from Wangara, or the lakes and swamps designated under that name, and of that river being the Zaire. There is not a lake, perhaps, of any magnitude in the known world, *without an outlet*, whose waters are not saline—the Caspian, the Aral, and the neighbouring lakes, the Asphaltites, or Dead Sea, and all those of Asia, which have no outlet, are salt. If, therefore the lakes of Wangara had no outlet, but all the waters received into them spread themselves over an extended surface during the rains, and were evaporated in the dry season, there would necessarily be deposited on the earth, so left dry, an incrustation of salt, and the remaining water would be strongly impregnated with salt; and both the one and the other would be increased by every succeeding inundation. None of the African rivers are free from saline impregnations; but the Niger, in its long easterly course, collecting the waters from the sandy and saline soil of the desert, where every plant almost is saturated with salt, must be particularly charged with it. No mention, however, is made by any of the Arabian writers of that indispensable article salt being procured in the mud or soil abandoned by the waters of Wangara; on the contrary, it is well-known that one great branch of the trade of Timbuctoo is that of obtaining salt from the northern desert, for the supply of the countries to the southward of the Niger. But if Wangara had no outlet, this could not be necessary, as both it and all the large inland lakes, so circumstanced, would afford more or less of salt; and if so, the trade of the caravans proceeding with rock salt from Teggaza to Timbuctoo would not have existed; as it is well known it has done, and still does, especially from the latter place to Melli and other countries south of the Niger, 'to a great water,' as Cadamosta says, 'which the traders could not tell whether it was salt or fresh; by reason of which (he says) I could not discover whether it was a river or the sea; but,' he continues, 'I hold it to be a river, because if it was the sea there would be no need of salt.'

"Edrisi, however, distinctly states them to be fresh water lakes, and says, that the two cities of Ghana are situated on the two opposite shores of what the Arabs call a fresh water sea. This fresh water sea, therefore, must necessarily have an outlet; or, like the Caspian, it would be no longer fresh; and the conclusion is, that, if the Niger runs into these lakes of Ghana and Wangara, it does not there terminate, but that, in the season of the rains it also flows out of them. In fact, Edrisi does not make the Niger to terminate in the swamps of Wangara or Vancara; he merely describes them as being an island 800 miles in length, and 150 in breadth, surrounded by the Niger *all the year*; but that, in the month of August the greater part is covered with water as long as the inundations of the Niger continue; and that when the river has subsided into its proper channel, the negroes return to their habitations, and dig the earth for gold, 'every one finding more or less, as it pleases God.' But not a word is mentioned of their finding salt, which, indeed, is the great interchangeable commodity for gold."

season its communication with the sea is interrupted, and its channel presents only a series of lagoons and pools.

The Quilimane.] The Quilimane, from which proceeds the Zambese, is the chief river on the eastern side of Africa. Access to the Quilimane is rendered difficult to vessels of considerable draught by a bar which extends across its entrance, and on which the sea often breaks with great violence. The tides also run with considerable velocity here; and when the wind is violent, and in opposition to the stream of the river, the conflict between the two elements is often terrific. It has been suggested that the Zambese and the Zaire on the opposite coast, may very nearly complete the insulation of the southern part of the continent.

Climate.] If the climate of America is distinguished by superabundant moisture and cold, that of Africa is not less remarkable for its general want of humidity, and its warmth. Of this fact the immense extent of arid and burning deserts already mentioned, affords incontrovertible proof. The most northern and the most southern districts are equally without a winter; and the greater part of the continent is situated within the tropics.

The ancients indeed supposed the torrid zone to be so parched by the perpendicular rays of the sun as to be uninhabitable; but modern discoveries have assured us that the theory of the ancients is not altogether true. The sun, when vertical, universally brings with him an immense train of clouds, which pour down upon the subjacent country an incessant deluge. When the sun is in the N. the rainy season begins in the countries lying northwards from the equator; when in the S., the rainy season is to the S. of the equator. This quantity of rain cools the atmosphere, so as to produce a temperature much more moderate than that which prevails when the sun removes to a greater distance; and the sun produces within the tropics in Africa the same effects as within the same degrees of latitude in other parts of the world. The prevalent drought is here in some measure checked by the tropical rains; and, so far as has been ascertained, the tropical regions are perhaps that part of this continent which is best watered. The greater part of the immense deserts—that of Sahara for instance—lie in general too far N. ever to be under the influence of a vertical sun. The torrid zone may therefore be considered as having only two seasons—the dry and the wet, which are likewise distinguished, in some places, as the summer and winter. In some districts, indeed, there are two dry and two wet seasons in the year; and these are called the short and the long seasons. In all the countries within 20° of the equator the difference in the amount of temperature is scarcely perceptible, at least in the countries lying near the coast, for the interior here is almost entirely unknown to us. In the countries from Cape Blanco up to the Senegal, the mean temperature from November to the end of March is at 6 A. M. about 73° Fahr., and at noon, in the shade, 87° Fahr. Farther into the interior of the country—at Bambouk, for instance—the heat is much more intense. At the Gambia, in the same months, the mean temperature at 6 A. M. is 77°, and at noon, in the shade, 91°. In the months of April, May, and June, at the Senegal, the thermometer at 6 A. M. indicates 83°, and at noon, in the shade, 95°. From the month of July to the end of October, the mean temperature at 6 A. M. is 96°; and at noon 107°. In the more southern countries the heat is still greater, and also in the sandy plains; in those districts which are situated farther towards the E., and even in those farther to the N., the heat is frequently rendered insupportable by peculiar localities. Thus at Omboe and Syene, in the S. of Egypt, the sand absolutely scorches the feet of the

traveller, and eggs may be dressed by burying them in the sand. At Algiers the mean temperature is 72°; at the cape of Good Hope the thermometer frequently rises to 95° or 98°, and often much higher; but change of temperature is very quickly effected here, and a burning day is frequently followed by a chilly night. During eight months of the year constant fine weather is prevalent throughout a great part of Africa. The sun rises every morning in a clear atmosphere, and spreads a glaring light over the whole country, too brilliant almost for the eye to sustain; no cloud casts a passing shadow over the landscape; and, in the evening, the orb of day sinks magnificently into the ocean. But the excessive heat diminishes the pleasure man might feel in contemplating the glorious sky; and the first clouds which foretell the approach of rain are hailed with delight by the European resident overwhelmed by the oppressive heat.

Diseases.] Fever is much less common among native Africans than among European settlers. Africans are seldom affected with enlargement of the spleen. A dangerous species of lethargy is very frequent in the Foolah country. Venereal complaints occur in various forms in Africa, but mostly in that of gonorrhœa. The *coup de soleil* (sun-stroke) is unknown in this country, although the natives are in the habit of exposing the head to the perpendicular rays of the sun during the greatest bodily exertions, and Europeans, under such circumstances, seldom have more than a thin handkerchief folded round the head. Dysentery is a frequent complaint on shore. Gout is wholly unknown. The diseases of children are few; and those of women, as may be readily imagined, are greatly fewer than in more polished countries.

Winds.] The limits of the changeable winds of Africa are about the 30th degree on each side of the equator. Within this region are the passage winds. These blow more or less N. E. in the northern hemisphere, and S. E. in the southern. The monsoons, which are strong and regular in the open Arabian sea, become changeable on approaching the land. In the Arabian sea they generally blow from the E. during the months and intervening months of October and May; and during the rest of the year they blow from the W. In the Red sea the S. E. wind prevails in the southern parts from October to June, when the N. wind begins to blow, and lasts during the remainder of the year. In the northern parts of this sea violent N. winds prevail for nine months of the year. The transition from one season to another is generally accompanied by violent hurricanes and thunder-storms. Some districts are more exposed to these visitations than others; as, for instance, the countries between Cape Verga and Cape Monte, which are often visited betwixt the months of June and October by dreadful tornadoes, the effects of which seldom extend to the neighbouring coasts.—In the deserts the wind is often very troublesome to the traveller, by raising the sand, and filling the air with dust, so as to render it impossible to keep one's eyes open, and difficult even to breathe.—Mr Buckingham, while travelling betwixt the Red sea and the Mediterranean in 1814, encountered one of these sand-tempests, which he has described with great beauty and effect. "On leaving," says he, "the site of these now evaporated lakes, (the Bitter lakes,) we entered upon a loose and shifting sand again, like that which Pliny describes when speaking of the roads from Pelusium, across the sands of the desert; in which, he says, unless there be reeds stuck in the ground to point out the line of direction, the way could not be found, because the wind blows up the sand, and covers the footsteps.—The morning was delightful on our setting out, and

promised us a fine day; but the light air from the south soon increased to a gale, the sun became obscure, and as every hour brought us into a looser sand, it flew around us in such whirlwinds, with the sudden gusts that blew, that it was impossible to proceed. We halted, therefore, for an hour, and took shelter under the lee of our beasts, who were themselves so terrified as to need fastening by the knees, and uttered in their wailings but a melancholy symphony. I know not whether it was the novelty of the situation that gave it additional horrors, or whether the habit of magnifying evils to which we are unaccustomed, had increased its effect; but certain it is, that fifty gales of wind at sea appeared to me more easy to be encountered than one amongst those sands. It is impossible to imagine desolation more complete; we could see neither sun, earth, nor sky: the plain at ten paces distance was absolutely imperceptible: our beasts, as well as ourselves, were so covered as to render breathing difficult; they hid their faces in the ground, and we could only uncover our own for a moment, to behold this chaos of mid-day darkness, and wait impatiently for its abatement. Alexander's journey to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, and the destruction of the Persian armies of Cambyzes in the Lybian desert, rose to my recollection with new impressions, made by the horror of the scene before me; while Addison's admirable lines, which I also remembered with peculiar force on this occasion, seemed to possess as much truth as beauty:—

'Lo! where our wide Numidian wastes extend,
Gadden the impetuous hurricanes descend,
Which through the air in circling eddies play,
Tear up the sands, and sweep whole plains away.
The helpless traveller, with wild surprise,
Sees the dry desert all around him rise:
And, smothered in the dusty whirlwind, dies.'

"The few hours we remained in this situation were passed in unbroken silence: every one was occupied with his own reflections, as if the reign of terror forbade communication. Its fury spent itself, like the storms of ocean, in sudden lulls and squalls: but it was not until the third or fourth interval that our fears were sufficiently conquered to address each other; nor shall I soon lose the recollection of the impressive manner in which that was done. '*Allah kereem!*' exclaimed the poor Bedouin, although habit had familiarised him with these resistless blasts. '*Allah kereem!*' repeated the Egyptians, with terrified solemnity; and both my servant and myself, as if by instinct, joined in the general exclamation. The bold imagery of the Eastern poets, describing the Deity as avenging in his anger, and terrible in his wrath, riding upon the wings of the wind, and breathing his fury in the storm, must have been inspired by scenes like these."

In Egypt a S. wind prevails in summer, which raises immense quantities of sand, and is often so hot as to stop respiration. Another called *samiel* by the natives is still hotter and more terrible.—But the most dreadful of all these burning winds is the *simoom*, which seems to be a concentrated column of the positive electric fluid, moving northwards, from the S. or S. E., and carrying sure destruction to all who breathe the baleful atmosphere which accompanies it. The only chance of escaping destruction when the *simoom* glides across the desert is, for the traveller to throw himself flat on his face, which he has not always time to do, for it moves with amazing rapidity. Bruce, whose ardent mind was not easily deterred from the attainment of knowledge by the presence of danger, has described

this fearful phenomenon. On the attendants calling out that the simoom was coming, he immediately turned for a moment to the quarter whence it came. It resembled a haze, in colour like the purple part of the rainbow, but not so compressed or thick. It was a kind of blush upon the air, and was about 20 yards in breadth, and about 4 from the ground. Its motion was so rapid, that before he could turn and fall upon the ground, he felt its violent heat upon his face. It passed like a gentle rustling wind, but was succeeded by a slight breeze, which for two or three hours was of such intensity of heat, as nearly to suffocate them. Bruce unfortunately inhaled a little of the purple haze, which nearly deprived him of his voice, and caused an asthma of two years' continuance. They saw it twice afterwards as they journeyed across the desert. The second time, it was more southerly—its edges were less defined, resembling a thin smoke—and it had about a yard in the middle tinged with purple and blue. The third time, it had the same purple and blue appearance, but was preceded by the largest sand pillar they had seen.—One of the most striking phenomena on the Gold Coast is the N. E. wind called *harmattan*. It comes on indiscriminately at any hour of the day, at any time of the tide, or at any period of the moon; and continues sometimes only a day or two, sometimes five or six days, and has been occasionally known to last fifteen or sixteen days. There are generally three or four returns of it every season; it blows with a moderate force, not so strongly as the sea-breeze, but somewhat more so than the land-wind. A fog or haze is one of the peculiarities which always accompany a harmattan; extreme dryness is another property of it: no dew falls during its continuance, nor is there the least appearance of moisture in the atmosphere, vegetables of every kind are much injured by it, and the grass withers under its influence. The process of evaporation during this wind proceeds with astonishing rapidity.

Natural History.] The deserts of Africa have long been noted as the haunts of savage animals. It was from these regions that the Romans procured those animals which they exhibited in their arenas. The number of wild beasts now inhabiting this continent is not supposed to be so great as in former ages, but they are still very numerous, in proportion to the extent of country.

Animal Kingdom.] The principal animals which, in a general account of Africa, demand our attention, are: the orang-otang, the rhinoceros, elephant, lion, panther, leopard, camel, giraffe, zebra, hippopotamus, crocodile, and hyena. A few remarks upon these African animals will interest the general reader.

The Orang-otang.] *The simia troglodytes, chimpanze*, or the orang-otang, of all the monkey tribes, has the greatest resemblance to the human species. Naturalists, who have minutely examined its organization, have declared that the deviations from the structure of the human body, which it presents, are neither numerous nor great. At the same time, while this animal so nearly approaches man in the configuration of its several parts, and while it evinces a sagacity which is not perhaps granted to many of the brute kind, it possesses nothing similar to human reason. This, among others, is a convincing argument that the excellency of human nature depends not on the formation of that corporeal machine in which the active principle is lodged. The orang-otang has a tongue formed exactly like that of a man, yet, while the minutest inspection of the mouth and throat presents nothing which can be accounted a hindrance to speech, this creature has never been known to utter an articulate sound. His face is said to have a grotesque likeness to that of an old deformed negro. This part has on it but little hair. The rest of the body is covered with hair of a reddish colour, more plentiful behind than before, and longer on the head than on any other part. The face and hands are swarthy. He is said to grow sometimes to the height of six feet; and such is his strength that he is more than a match for the strongest man. He often attacks negroes in the woods; and is even so bold as to attack the elephant. He is a solitary animal, of a melancholy disposition; and, even when young, seems little inclined to any thing that has the appearance of sport. He is always seen in an erect posture; but sleeps in a tree, where he generally constructs some kind of cover to shelter him-

self from the storm. Notwithstanding the great strength and morose disposition of this animal, he is sometimes caught and tamed, so as to perform many servile operations. He turns the spit, raises glasses, and fetches water from the river. He carries the pitcher on his head; but, if it be not taken from him as soon as he arrives, he drops it, not from malice, but ignorance of the consequence: for, when he perceives that the vessel is broken, he is said to make much lamentation. In a tame state, his dispositions are gentle, without that tendency to mischief which is so predominant in many of the families of apes. Naturalists are not yet decided as to the specific identity or distinction of the orang-utang and pongee.

The Rhinoceros.] The rhinoceros—by some supposed to be the unicorn of the ancients—is an animal of immense bulk. The size of his body is said to be almost equal to that of the elephant; but the shortness of his legs gives him a more diminutive appearance. His body and legs are very thick; and his belly almost touches the ground. The whole animal has somewhat of the appearance of an overgrown hog; and, like that creature, it wallows in the mire. Its body is covered with a thick, hard, corrugated hide, contracted into various folds, and rising in different places into hard lumps, so that the animal appears as if covered with armour. A tuft at the extremity of the tail is almost the only hair which appears upon this creature; but the skin is said to be so strong and scarcely to be penetrable by any ordinary weapon. On the muzzle, above the nose, is situated a horn, rising to the height of several inches, and bending with a curve towards the forehead,—the principal offensive weapon which Nature has bestowed on the rhinoceros. This animal is of a solitary disposition. His strength is great; but, unless provoked, he seldom attacks the human species. When enraged, he pursues the object of his resentment as nearly as possible in a straight line; throwing aside stones, and tearing up trees that oppose his passage. His eyes are like those of the hog, small, and placed in such a position that he sees only straight forwards, so that by turning aside he may be easily avoided. When taken young, he may be tamed, but he is seldom perhaps totally divested of ferocity. He is neither so docile nor so sagacious as the elephant.

The Elephant.] The elephant, since the mammoth is no longer to be found, is the largest of terrestrial animals, and, in the conformation of some parts of his body, differs materially from that of any animal with which we are acquainted. That part of the figure of an elephant, which upon a superficial view appears most remarkable, is the trunk, which appears to be a prolongation of the muzzle, and which serves all the purposes of a hand. The following are the dimensions of an African male elephant 25 years of age: Length from the proboscis to the tail, 25 feet 6 inches; proboscis, 7 feet 6 inches; small teeth, 2 feet 10 inches; foot, longitudinally, 1 foot 7 inches; eye, 2 by 1½ inches; from the foot to the hip-bone, 9 feet 6 inches; from the hip-bone to the back, 3 feet; ear, 2 feet 2 by 2½; tank, 4 feet 6 inches. In Africa they are scarcely ever taken alive, but hunted as a sport for the sake of their flesh, and also in order to obtain their teeth, which, however, as they are generally small, are sold to the merchants for a very trifling profit.

The Lion.] The largest African lions are from 8 to 9 feet in length, and from 4 to 6 feet high. Lions of this size, however, are uncommon; the general magnitude is about 5 feet 6 inches long, and 3 feet 6 inches high. The courage and strength of the lion do not save him from being eagerly sought after by African hunters. Two or three men, well-mounted, set out in search for him. If at a great distance when discovered, he flies with the utmost speed; but, if the distance be small, or he finds that he is vigorously pursued, he retreats with a slow pace, turning a fierce look upon his pursuers. At length he stops; and facing them, utters a cry which sufficiently indicates that he is prepared to meet them. One of the hunters instantly dismounts; and, taking an aim, discharges his piece. If he miss the animal, or if he only wound him, he remounts and flies with the utmost speed. The lion pursues with fury; another of the hunters dismounts, and, in his turn, discharges his piece. If he succeed no better than the former, he likewise remounts and flies. The third now takes his aim, while the lion is engaged in the pursuit of the other two. In this manner he is soon despatched, for one of the hunters seldom fails to bring him to the ground. The character of the lion varies according to the different situations in which he is placed. In the neighbourhood of an inhabited country, he is soon taught that he has a superior; and, being frequently vanquished by man, he is no longer fearless or undaunted. He finds his strength often unavailing in the combat; and he, therefore, has recourse to insidiousness and stratagem. In the desert, where the lion is seldom encountered by a human being, and seldom attacks without being the conqueror, his success inflames his courage. Habituated to conquest, he attacks indiscriminately every opponent; and will rather die in the struggle, than submit to unaccustomed flight. The lions near the cape of Good Hope, where they are frequently hunted, are easily intimidated; and, if at a sufficient distance, disdain not to fly from two or three pursuers. The lions in the desert of Sahara will singly attack a whole caravan; and never terminate the combat but with their existence.

The Leopard and Panther.] The leopard of Southern Africa is known among the Cape colonists by the name of tiger; but is, in fact, the real leopard, the *Felis jubata* of naturalists, well-known for the beauty of its shape and spotted skin, and the treachery and fierceness of its disposition. The animal called leopard (*tuipard*) by the Cape Dutch boers, is a species of the panther, and is inferior to the real leopard both in size and beauty. Both of them are dreaded in the mountainous districts, on account of the ravages which they occasionally commit among the flocks, and on the young cattle and horses in the breeding season. The South African panther is a cowardly animal, and, like the hyena, flies from the face of man. The leopard also, though his low, half-smothered growl is frequently heard by night, as he prowls like an evil spirit around the enticement of the kraal, will seldom or never attack mankind—children excepted—unless previously assailed or exasperated. When

hunted, as he usually is, with dogs, he instinctively betakes himself to a tree, where he falls an easy prey to the shot of the huntsman. The leopard, however, though far inferior in strength and intrapidity to the lion, is yet an exceedingly active and furious animal: and when driven to extremity, proves himself occasionally an antagonist not to be trifled with.

The Camel.] The camel, or *ship of the desert* as it has been not inaptly called, is admirably fitted by its nature and habits for the use of man in that country. In the burning deserts of Africa, the horse, or any other hard-hoofed animal, would travel in torment; but to the soft and spongy feet of the camel such regions are agreeable. Where the heat is so great, and water is seldom to be found, the greater number of animals would soon perish of thirst; but, such is the structure of the camel, that he can at once receive into his stomach a sufficient supply of water for several days. This water remains in a particular part of the stomach, unmixed with any other substance; in some cases of extremity the animal has been killed for the sake of it, and thus, by his death has saved the life of his master. The camel appears, to the eye unaccustomed to view him, of a very awkward shape. The neck is long, and bent in a manner which resembles that of a bird more than that of a quadruped; while the head is small when compared to the bulk of the body, and has some resemblance to that of a sheep. The species called the *Bactrian camel* has on the back two bunches or calloties covered with erect hair, of such a length as to make the bunches appear to be of a size much greater than they really are. The *African camel*, or dromedary, is distinguished by having only one bunch. Both species have four calloties upon the fore-legs; and two upon the hind-legs; and, indeed, they are similar in every circumstance, except the number of bunches on the back. The inhabitants of sandy deserts have much reason to consider the camel as the peculiar gift of Providence: for no other known animal can be used by travellers in those arid regions. To fit him for such expeditions is almost the sole object of a camel's education. He is taught to fold his limbs under him, and to lie down on his belly, and thus permit himself to be loaded. By degrees, his burden is increased, till it be as great as the strength of the animal can admit. He is inured to abstinence both in meat and drink, till he can perform the longest and most fatiguing journeys with a quantity of aliment which seems scarcely adequate to preserve him in existence. His motion is naturally slow and deliberate; but he is early habituated to accelerate his step, so that although 30 miles be an ordinary day's journey, he is brought sometimes to travel 100 miles daily, for several days together. Some camels carry 1,000 or 1,200 pounds weight: the common burden is from 700 to 800 pounds. They are unloaded at night, and repose in the posture which they are taught to assume when they are to be loaded. When the caravan halts, the camels are made to kneel, and the cords being loosed, the load is laid off at one side. In the morning, the load is again fixed; and the camel instantly rises, and sets forward, enduring hunger, thirst and fatigue, with a patience of which no other animal seems capable. The utility of the camel is not confined to the performance of long and fatiguing journeys. He furnishes his master with several of the necessaries of life. The milk of the female is equal, if not superior in goodness to that of the cow, and she continues to yield it during a greater portion of the year. The flesh of the camel, when young, is palatable, and nutritive; and, when properly preserved, forms a constant supply of food. The fat is used as a medicine. The hair is superior to wool with regard to fineness, and equal in warmth. The urine yields sal-ammoniac; and the dung, when dried, serves not only all the purposes of litter, where no straw can be obtained, but it is likewise an excellent fuel. In short, the camel is a striking argument not only of the wisdom, but the bounty of Providence. At a twentieth of the expense, the quantity of his labour is not inferior to that of the elephant. He unites the several good qualities of the horse, the ox, and the ass. For labour, he is equal to any of the three; his flesh is as good as that of the ox; and, with regard to abstinence and coarseness of food, he is more easily supported than the ass.

The Camelopard.] The camelopard, sometimes called the giraffe, is more remarkable for its form than its utility: the fore-parts of its body being so high when compared with its hinder parts, that when seen at a distance, the animal appears to be erect. The difference of the height of these two parts has generally been estimated at 2½ feet, though some naturalists from observations made upon the skeleton, reduced this difference seven inches. The giraffe is the tallest animal with which we are acquainted. Its neck is long; and, when standing upright, its height, according to some, is 15 feet, according to others, 17 feet; while others confidently assert, that, in the interior of the country, and even at the cape of Good Hope, they have been found at the height of 22 feet. It has two small horns on its forehead, and has been universally represented as being of a gentle disposition.

The Zebra.] The zebra is described as possessing the beauty of the horse, with the speed of the stag. To elegance of shape, is added all the beauty that regularity of colour can bestow: for, in the whole species, the stripes of black and white are disposed in an order that never varies. In size, though less than the horse, he is larger than the ass. He is seldom at rest, and such is his obstinacy that he is generally reckoned unmanageable. It is probable, however, that the attempt has never been properly made.

The Ass.] The African asses do not possess any of the bad qualities imputed to ours. They are every thing rather than indolent; it is, on the contrary, very difficult to moderate their spirit. They generally go at a short trot, and their pace is perfectly even and gentle; they are extremely patient of fatigue. They have very singular saddles; those of the women are so high, that they sit on them as on a throne, with their feet on the neck of the animal.

The Hippopotamus.] The hippopotamus, or river horse—so called because he can live equally on land or in water—is an animal of great size. His length is said to be sometimes 17 feet, and his height near 7 feet. His body is 15 feet in circumference. The length of his legs is 3 feet; the length of the

head 3½ feet; its circumference almost 9 feet; and the width of the mouth when opened more than 2 feet. An animal of such magnitude must be possessed of great strength; and his strength is not destitute of weapons. His mouth is furnished with 44 teeth, and he has tusks of which the length, according to Sparman, is 27 inches. These weapons, however, are seldom used. The hippopotamus is of a peaceable disposition: satisfied with defending himself, he never offers unprovoked injury to weaker animals. The appellation of sea-horse, by which this animal is commonly known, and sea-cow, by which it is known at the cape of Good Hope, have arisen from very slight circumstances. It has been called a horse, from its noise, which is said to resemble the neighing of that animal; and it is called a cow, merely because it is a graminivorous quadruped, and has a stomach, or rather stomachs, like those of the cow. In shape it resembles neither the cow nor the horse. According to Sparman, an overgrown hog is a tolerable miniature of the hippopotamus. The eyes and nostrils are not large, in proportion to the size of the animal. The ears are, likewise, small, pointed, and closely lined with short hair. Several spots covered with hair appear upon the hips. The body is almost naked; the few scattered hairs are of a whitish colour. The tail is only a foot long; like a hog's it tapers towards the point, and is compressed and naked. The legs are thick in proportion to their length, and the feet are divided into four hoofs. The hippopotamus, though he spends a great part of his time under water, never feeds on fish. He devours in great quantities, sugar-canes, rushes, millet, rice, roots of trees, and different kinds of herbage. He generally grazes during night, and seldom ventures far from the banks of a river. On land he is said to be timid. When disturbed he hastens to the water, plunges in, and walks with ease upon the bottom; but he cannot remain long under water without coming to the surface to take breath, or as it has been called to blow. When near the haunts of men, he rises to the surface with caution, and scarcely permits his nostrils to be seen. They have been known to live in the sea, but it is supposed that they must always betake themselves to fresh water for drink. The enmity supposed to exist between him and the crocodile, Pennant declares to be wholly imaginary.

The Crocodile.] The crocodile, like the sea-horse, is an inhabitant both of the land and of the water. Unlike the hippopotamus, however, which seldom makes an attack till provoked, the crocodile adds cunning to strength, and incessantly exerts both to satisfy a voracious appetite. He grows to a great size: being, it is said, sometimes not less than 25 feet in length, and upwards of 5 feet in girth. The head is long; the mouth is large in proportion to the body, and armed with a row of formidable teeth; the whole of the body is covered with scales, which are soft under the belly and hard on the back, but, contrary to what has been supposed, are nowhere proof against a musket-ball. The length of the tail is about the third of that of the whole body. The legs are short. The fore legs resemble, in their conformation, the arms of a man. The toes, which have some resemblance to fingers, are connected by a strong membrane, and armed with large claws. The colour of the back is dark brown; of the belly a whitish citron; the sides are spotted with different shades of both colours. Its dusky hue, joined to its rugged appearance, give it, when extended upon land, no small resemblance to a fallen tree. In spite of the fierceness and dreaded powers of the crocodile, we are told that a single negro will often successfully attack him, not only on land but in the water. With no other armour than the hide of a cow wrapped round his left arm, and a knife in his right hand, he plunges into the river. The crocodile advances with open mouth, and seizes the left arm of the negro purposely held out to him; and, while he is employed in endeavouring to swallow it, he is stabbed below the chin with the knife which the negro carries in his other hand, and, in a short time, in consequence of the loss of blood, and the water entering by his mouth which is held involuntarily open, he expires. The female crocodile propagates by eggs, which she deposits in the sand to the amount of between two and three hundred. These eggs are hatched by the heat of the sun. Instinct prompts the female to return after 30 days, and to release her young by removing the sand under which the eggs were buried. They instantly run to the water, or, mounting on the back of their mother, are by her conveyed thither. But of the great number of eggs which are laid, and which would produce a brood so numerous, very few ever arrive at maturity: for both the eggs and the young of crocodiles are fortunately a grateful prey to many creatures. The eggs are eagerly sought after and greedily devoured, so that by far the greater part of the eggs are never hatched; and even the young brood are far from being safe. Numberless fowls attack them on their way to the water; and they can scarcely encounter an animal in which they do not find a foe.

Hyenas, &c.] Africa possesses several species of hyenas and dogs. We also find the large-tailed sheep in some countries of this continent, and several kinds of goats. The antelope, in consequence of the swiftness of its motion, is often found traversing the deserts. Buffaloes and several species of oxen exist in this country, amongst which is the *Bos Caffr*, a very wild and strong species. The *Bos Ethiopius*, or Ethiopian boar, is an animal peculiar to Africa.

Birds.] There are about 642 species of birds known in Africa, of which number upwards of 500 are peculiar to this continent. Here, as in all hot countries, the birds which feed upon insects and seeds are the most numerous. Many of them are distinguished by a brilliant plumage. We subjoin an account of that extraordinary bird, the ostrich.

The Ostrich.] The ostrich is polygamous, and at the time of breeding usually associates to himself from two to six females. The hens lay all their eggs together in the same nest, which is merely

a shallow cavity scraped in the ground, of such a shape as to be conveniently covered by one of the birds. The eggs are placed upon their points, and the earth which has been scraped to form the nest is employed to confine the outer circle, and keep the whole in the proper position. The hens relieve each other in the office of incubation during the day, and the male takes his turn at night, when his superior strength is required to protect the eggs or the new-hatched young from the jackals, tiger-cats, and other enemies, which are not unfrequently, it is said, found lying dead near the nest, destroyed by a stroke from the powerful foot of this gigantic bird. So many as 60 eggs are sometimes found in a nest; but a much smaller number are also common, and incubation is occasionally performed by a single pair of ostriches. Each female lays from 12 to 16 eggs. They continue to lay during incubation, and even after the young brood are hatched: the supernumerary eggs are not placed in the nest, but around it, being designed to assist in the nourishment of the young birds, which, though when first hatched are as large as a pullet, are probably unable at once to digest the hard and acrid food on which the old ones subsist. The period of incubation is from 36 to 40 days. In the heat of the day the nest is occasionally abandoned by all the birds, the heat of the sun being then sufficient to keep the eggs at the proper temperature. An ostrich egg is considered as equal in its contents to 24 of the domestic hen. When taken fresh from the nest, they are very palatable, and are whole, some though somewhat heavy food. The ostrich of South Africa is a prudent and wary animal, and displays little of that stupidity ascribed to it by some naturalists. On the borders of the colony, at least when it is eagerly pursued for the sake of its valuable plumage, this bird displays no want of sagacity in providing for its own safety or the security of its offspring. It adopts every precaution to conceal the place of its nest; and uniformly abandons it after destroying the eggs, if the eggs have been disturbed, or the footstep of man are discovered near it. Some of the colonists on the skirts of the Karroo and other remote districts, make the pursuit of the ostrich one of their principal and most profitable amusements. It is exceedingly difficult, however, to get within gunshot of them, owing to their constant vigilance, and the great distance to which they can see. The fleetest horse, too, will not overtake them, unless stratagem be adopted to fire them out; but by several hunters taking different sides of a large plain, and pursuing them back and forward till their strength is exhausted, they may be at length run down. If followed on too eagerly this chase is not destitute of danger, for the huntsman has sometimes had his thigh-bone broken by a single stroke from the wing of a wounded ostrich. The beautiful white feathers so highly prized by the ladies of Europe, are found on the tail only of the male bird. The food of the ostrich consists of the tops of the various shrubby plants which even the most arid parts of South Africa produce in abundance. This bird is so easily satisfied in regard to water that he is constantly to be found in the most parched and desolate tracts, which even the antelopes and beasts of prey have deserted. His cry at a distance is said so much to resemble that of a lion, that even the Hottentots are sometimes deceived by it. When not hatching, they are frequently seen in troops of 30 or 40 together, or amicably associated with herds of zebras or quaghas, their fellow-tenants of the wilderness. When caught young, the ostrich is easily tamed; but it does not appear that any attempt has been made to apply his great strength and swiftness to any purpose of practical utility.

Reptiles and Insects.] The fearful *Boa Constrictor* and several other species both of venomous and harmless serpents are found in Africa. This continent is also infested by ants, termites, scolopendras, spiders, caterpillars, and locusts. The latter are often very destructive; but the natives use the species *Gryllus migratorius* as food. The silk-worm prospers well in Africa, and there are several species of African bees. The insects of Africa are exceedingly numerous, and remarkable for their beauty.

Fishes.] The seas and rivers of Africa contain many species of fishes, but they are not so numerous here as in the seas of the North. Pearl-oysters and corals are fished upon the coasts.

Vegetable kingdom.] The vegetable kingdom in Africa contains many luxurious plants. We here find that giant of the vegetable world the baobab, or calabash-tree, with its mass of foliage of 120 feet in diameter, the botan, rising to the height of 120 feet, the majestic palm-tree, the shea or butter-tree, the orange, the lemon, pomegranate, tamarind, and pine-apple, the coffee plant, the vine, figs, citron, the sugar-cane, the acacia; rice, yams, indigo, pepper, wheat, barley, and innumerable spice-plants.

Minerals.] We have yet only a very imperfect acquaintance with the geology and mineralogy of Africa. It appears that primitive rocks, transition rocks, floetz, alluvium, and volcanic mountains have been found upon this continent. We shall indicate these formations more particularly in our details.—Salt is obtained in great quantity on both sides of the Atlas. It is found either covering the soil, or disposed in thick strata. Mineral salt

has also been discovered in South Africa. Barrow says that coals have been found in the Tigre mountains, N. of the cape of Good Hope. Rock crystal is found in Tunis; cornelian and chalcedons in Egypt; jasper, agate, and blue and yellow amianthus at the Orange river. Graphite is said to have been found at the Cape, and likewise in Tunis. Iron is found in abundance in all the Mandara hills, and also in Morocco. There are some silver-mines in Tunis, and others are said to exist behind Mozambique and Congo. Copper is found in the Western Atlas, and quicksilver in Tunis. But the article of exchange which Africa produces most abundantly is gold, particularly between the 15th and 22d parallels of southern latitude. Mr Jackson states—with considerable exaggeration surely—that at Timbuctoo this precious metal is often exchanged for its weight in salt, tobacco, or other valuable commodities.

Population.] The population of the African continent is of course more difficult to ascertain even by approximation than its superficial extent. We have no census of a single known kingdom or town; and the existence of others is still matter of conjecture. Pinkerton thinks there are no more than 30,000,000 of human beings in Africa; Malte Brun supposes they cannot exceed 70,000,000; Gräberg estimates them at 99,000,000; Golberry says they may amount to 160,000,000; and Ukert, allowing one-third of surface for uninhabited territory, approximates the population of the remaining two-thirds to above 100,000,000 souls. We subjoin a table of Ukert and Gräberg's calculations:

	According to Ukert.	According to Gräberg.
Egypt,	3,000,000	4,000,000
Tripoli with Barca,	2,000,000	1,000,000
Tunis,	2,500,000	1,500,000
Algiers,	3,000,000	2,500,000
Fez, Morocco, and Tafilet,	14,800,000	
Morocco,		5,000,000
Nubia,	100,000	
Abyssinia,	3,500,000	4,000,000
Fungi,	900,000	900,000
Fur,	1,500,000	1,500,000
British Africa,	330,300	330,300
Spanish do.	180,000	69,700
French do.	92,000	
Portuguese do.	458,000	1,200,000
Danish do.	3,000	
Island of Madagascar,	4,000,000	
Island of Hinguan,	30,000	
The rest of Africa,	66,000,000	77,000,000
	<hr/> 102,393,000	<hr/> 99,000,000

The history of by far the greater part of this mysterious country is yet enveloped in darkness, and the origin of its inhabitants utterly unknown. Ritter maintains that Africa has only two principal races of Aborigines, an opinion which the Father of history had already pronounced, and which recent researches, we must allow, rather tend to confirm than invalidate. These two original tribes are the inhabitants of the mountainous districts, called by the ancients *Ethiopians*, and by the moderns *Negroes*,—and the inhabitants of the plains, known to the former under the name of *Libyans*, and to the latter under that of *Barbars* or *Berbers*, and belonging to the great *Caucasian* stem according to Blumenbuech.

The Negro Tribes.] The Negroes, or inhabitants of the mountains—who have also extended themselves in many districts to the sea-coast—

have preserved themselves free from all admixture of foreign blood. They are an isolated portion of the human race, although they have divided themselves into a number of distinct tribes, amongst whom an amazing variety of tongues and dialects are spoken. They seem to have gradually descended from the mountain-seats of their ancestors, passing from terrace to terrace of this curiously configured country, and driving the inhabitants of the lower districts before them, or in some rare instances—as in the case of the Mandingoes—intermarrying and amalgamating with them. There is no trace of their ever having existed in a higher state of civilization than they do at this moment; and we have but a few philological indications to guide us in tracing the progress and affiliation of a few of their tribes. The Negro tribes are of every shade from dark brown to jet black. The Caffers and Hottentots are brown. The children of Europeans and negroes are called *Mulattoes*, and their colour varies from a light to a dark brown. The children of Europeans and mulattoes are called *Tercerons*; those of Tercerons and Europeans, *Quadroons*. The children of Negroes and Americans are called *Zambos* or *Sambos*. The Ethiopian race is distinguished by a dark brown or jet black complexion, woolly hair, a small head, a prominent forehead and projecting eyes, a thick flat nose, thick lips, and high cheek-bones.

The Barbar Tribes.] The inhabitants of the plains, amongst whom Ritter regards the Barbaras as the main stem, have, according to that sometimes fanciful but profound geographer, taken an impress of character from the mutable and ever alternating features of those regions in which they reside. For thousands of years there has been a process of ever-shifting change effecting upon the surface of a vast portion of the African plains; the soil seems to have been driven from hill to hill in a series of successive undulations from east to west, bearing along with it the tribes which roam over its surface, as well as its streams, and oases. Men do not war with the eternal impulses of Nature, and since the time of the Nasamones mentioned by Herodotus, until the present day, the various tribes of these districts have been in a state of constant movement. This wandering character, Ritter farther contends, manifests itself in the lean figure, the power of abstinence, the want of industry, displayed by these tribes; in the ease with which they adopt foreign customs; in their destitution of patriotism; in their nomadic life; in the flexibility of their character; and finally, in their great adaptation for commercial employments. The Barbaras are in general well-made, tall, and thin. Their features are quite different from those of the Negroes; their hair too is long, and their colour varies from yellow to black. They are mostly all Mahomedans in religion.

Origin of the People.] The communication between Africa and Asia the *cunabula gentium*, whether through the barren isthmus of Suez, or by the narrow Arabian gulf, is by no means very obvious and easy; and we are not provided with any account of the emigration of ancient tribes from Arabia to Africa; although the Barbaras and Caffers do certainly evince—the former in their physical features, and the latter in their language—a considerable affinity to the Arabians. Perhaps, for any thing at least that we know, the latter nation may have derived its own origin from Africa: in many respects the Arabians exhibit less affinity to the other tribes of Asia than to those African nations. If we suppose the Caffers to have come from Asia—perhaps before the formation of the Arabian gulf—they must in their progress southwards have peopled the whole tract of the coast-districts, till they reached the extreme southern point of the country;

in the same manner as the Barbari, and subsequently the Arabians, appear to have penetrated across the whole plain country to the western ocean. It cannot escape the notice of the intelligent reader that in the N. of Africa, on the coast of Barbary, the ancients designed by the two pillars of Hercules to indicate a passage from the country of Libya into that of Hesperia or Spain. Indeed the Arabian conquerors of Spain long sought to unite the two continents of Europe and Africa about this quarter; and in Edrisi's time, a tradition seems to have existed among the Arabians that Hercules, provoked by the perpetual disputes betwixt the Africans and Andalusians, formed this division betwixt them, with a view of terminating their ceaseless disputes; and it is curious at least to observe what confirmation the present nomenclature of the opposing shores of Africa and Europe afford to the theory of their ancient union. For example, opposite to the European *Algarvia* we find the African *El garb*; and it consists with the opinion of the natives at this day, that the name *Traf-el-garb*, or *Trafalgar*, is derived from *El garb*, or *Gabel Tarif*, that is Gibraltar, *traf* or *tarif* meaning a portion of country or district insulated from the rest. Ritter is further of opinion that Herodotus and his contemporaries did not greatly err in reckoning Egypt as an Asiatic country; for it certainly was not merely in respect of civilization, but also of some other important features, very distinct from the rest of the adjacent continent.

Languages.] Seetzen, who had much intercourse with the natives, supposed that the number of languages spoken in Africa might amount to 150, which is certainly not an over-estimate. Jackson says 33 languages are spoken between the Western ocean and the Red sea. The Arabian language seems to be the most extensively spread. Mr Marsden and some others have traced the language of the Barbari to the oasis of Siwah, and also to the foot of Mount Atlas, that is from the extreme E. to the extreme W. of northern Africa. Mr Marsden conjectures it may have been the general language of Northern Africa before the period of the Mahomedan conquests, and that, so marked is its affinity to certain forms of the oriental languages, it may not be unreasonable to consider it as connected with the ancient Punic,—an opinion in which M. Langles is disposed to concur.

Religion and Civilization.] Of the great continents of the globe, Africa is the lowest in the intellectual and moral scale; and of the four quarters of this continent, the northern is the lowest in respect of Christian and moral advantages. On the eastern side, through Egypt and Abyssinia, some moral and perhaps religious good seems likely to be accomplished; on the western, the labours of Christian missionaries have not been in vain; in the south, at the Cape, along the S. E. coast, and in Lower Guinea, the exertions of missionaries have planted a nucleus of growing civilization and Christianity; but in the north there are numerous formidable obstacles to the propagation of the gospel, all in operation almost without any counter-acting influence. Dr Münter indeed affirms that the Christian faith was introduced into Africa by some Christians from Rome, about the close of the 1st, or the commencement of the 2d century, and that Christian churches were once diffused over 16,000 (German) square miles of this continent. But the greater part of the native African tribes are Fetish worshippers. They adore what they call a good and evil principle, and generally believe in witchcraft, prophecy, and conjuration. In Northern and Central Africa the doctrines of Mahomet enslave the consciences and mislead the souls of men.

Commerce.] The commerce of the Africans is chiefly confined to the interior of their country; they seldom trade with foreign countries, and their little trade by sea is mere cabotage, or coast-carriage. Africa is not perforated by any arms of the sea, and her rivers are imperfectly navigated; trade therefore is chiefly conducted by land-conveyance, in which the camel is universally employed. The merchants who have occasion to travel to a distant market, form themselves into companies called *caravans*. The number of camels accompanying a caravan is generally from between the extremes of 500 and 2000; they travel at the rate of 8 miles an hour, and 6 or 7 hours in each day. The following are some of the principal routes pursued by these caravans: 1st, From Mourzouk, the capital of Fezzan, to Cairo; a route of about 40 days. The halting-places are Siwah, Angila, and Temissa. 2d, From Mourzouk to Bornou; a journey of 50 days. The track is through the deserts of Bilma and Tibesti; and the principal halts are at Temissa, Dombou, and Kamei. 3d, From Mourzouk to Cashna. This occupies 60 days, through Hiatta, Ganatt, and Agades. 4th, From Fez to Timbuctoo, a journey of 54 days; but as 65 besides are spent in rest, the whole number of days required is 119. The stations are Akka or Tatta, Tegazza, and Arawan or Aruan. Another route along the sea-coast, leads to the same point by Wadimou, Cape Bajador, and Gualata. 5th and 6th, The caravans from Senegar and Darfoor to Egypt. These do not travel so regularly as the others; an interval of two or three years often elapses betwixt them. Of the commerce of South Africa, we have few and very imperfect accounts. The common media of exchange are bullion in the N., and gold-dust, ingots, and cowries, in the S. With many Negro tribes, European merchandise and glass-beads form the only medium of exchange; but salt is the chief basis of trade from Northern to Central Africa. The first, and by far the most considerable object of African trade, and particularly of export, in modern times, is the human species; and, to their eternal disgrace, Europeans have ever been the principal abettors in this most atrocious traffic. The victims are drawn chiefly from the tribes inhabiting the heights of Central Africa. Gold dust is the second article of exchange which Africa produces; and next to it ivory. Both are procured almost solely in the interior, and thence brought down to the coast. Gum Senegal is another important object of export. It exudes from a species of acacia, of which the southern parts of the desert of Sahara contain vast forests; hides, skins, ornamental woods, and dye-woods, complete the list of principal African exports. For internal consumption, cotton-cloths are made by families for their own use; and the smith furnishes implements to the agriculturist, arms to the warrior, and ornaments to the chiefs and women.

Knowledge of the Ancients regarding Africa.] The geographical knowledge which the ancients possessed of the African coast, is supposed to have extended on the western shore to Cape Blanco or Cape de Verd, and on the eastern shore to the island of Pembo. The valley of the Nile was known in early history under the same name it now bears; but the neighbouring countries were veiled in darkness to the ancients, and comprehended under the general name of *Nigritia* or Negroland. The Greeks, according to Herodotus, and after them the Romans, having acquired a better knowledge of the coasts of the Mediterranean, may perhaps have sailed up the Joliba; but they certainly never penetrated farther than to the limits of Numidia, and were totally unacquainted with Southern Africa.

Knowledge of the Arabians.] Africa, containing some of the principal

seats of Mussulman power, early attracted the attention of Arabian geographers: some of whom visited the interior, and still remain almost our only authorities with regard to certain districts. The bigotry of Islamism, however, was opposed to Arabian research in many quarters of this continent. "Of Christians and Ethiopians," says Ibn Hankal, in his Oriental geography, "I have spoken little, for my innate love of justice, religion, and good government, made it impossible for me to find in these people any thing deserving of praise, or even of mention." The same sapient reasons seem to have prevailed with most of Ibn Hankal's colleagues, in the task of African geography; and thus the limits of Moslem dominion were with them the limits of correct and clear geographical knowledge of this country. At some distant period the Arabians had penetrated across the great Desert, to the eastern shores of the Niger, where they established several extensive kingdoms, amongst which Gana held a decided pre-eminence. Westwards from Gana, at the distance of about 400 miles, Tocrur and Sala are described as flourishing Mahommedan cities, situated on the Niger. The countries beyond were regarded as a wide expanse of trackless desert. To the east of Gana lay Wangara, or 'the country of gold'; farther eastwards their knowledge became indistinct. The Arabians knew little of Nubia, and seem to have confounded the river of Bornou with the Nile. They had flourishing settlements on the western coast; but seem to have had no acquaintance with the cape of Good Hope; on the contrary, Edrisi, in his map, extends Africa to the east till it becomes conterminous with India and China.

Progress of European Discovery.] From the 10th to the 14th century constituted the golden age of Arabian science; from the 15th century downwards, the honours of geographical discovery have belonged to Europe. Cape Nun, in the same parallel with the Canary islands, was discovered by Henry the navigator in 1412; the Canary islands had been discovered in 1402, and from that period the spirit of maritime discovery was almost wholly engrossed by the Portuguese. The discoveries of the Portuguese navigators had completed the outlines of this continent, long before much was known regarding the interior. The Portuguese themselves had penetrated into the country only at the two opposite points of Abyssinia and Congo; but, misled by the notices of Edrisi, they placed the source of the Nile in Abyssinia, and fixed the mountains of the Moon midway between the tropic of Capricorn and the cape of Good Hope; while the lake Zambia or Dembea was placed about 2000 miles south of its real position, and described as "the great mother and chief lady of all the African waters."—About the commencement of the 18th century the English and French began to form settlements on the Gambia and Senegal; and about 1720 Francis Moore travelled into the interior. He adopted the geographical notions of Leo and Edrisi, and regarded the Gambia and Senegal as the two mouths by which the Niger, after traversing nearly the whole breadth of Africa, discharged itself into the ocean.—In 1754 D'Anville read several memoirs on African geography before the French academy of sciences, in which we find the first approaches to correct geography with regard to the rivers of Central Africa. He recognized three great African rivers: the Senegal,—the Niger itself, which he supposed to flow from west to east,—and the river of Bornou, flowing in an opposite direction, which he erroneously supposed to be Edrisi's 'Nile of the Negroes.'—In 1788 we find a Mr Barnes reporting to the committee of council on Africa that the Niger rises in the eastern extremity of the mountains of Govines, and

discharges itself into a large lake, and that European goods must be transported up the Senegal and down the Niger.—The association for promoting discoveries in the interior of Africa was formed in 1788; and in 1797 Mr Park returned from exploring the course of the Niger and the territories situated in its vicinity, during a three years' mission under the society's auspices. In this journey our enterprising countryman traced the confines of the Great Desert, and visited the Moors and Negroes: having penetrated from the Atlantic ocean more than 1100 miles eastward into Africa. The French had already extended their travels 500 miles in the same direction; and on the opposite side Mr Browne had travelled to within about 1200 miles from Mr Park's most eastern distance.—In 1797 Frederick Hornemann, a native of Germany, proceeded to Africa under the direction of the association. Attaching himself to a caravan, he travelled from Cairo through Fezzan; and from thence he transmitted various notices respecting the interior of Africa, and in particular affirmed, from the concurring testimony of all travellers with whom he had conversed, that the Niger joins the Nile. Of his farther progress no accounts have reached this country, and his name must be added to the list of those who have perished in the cause of African discovery.—In 1805 Mr Park embarked in a second expedition to Africa, which added little to the geographical knowledge already acquired by his former travels in this country, and cost the intrepid traveller his life. While sailing down the Niger he was attacked at Yaour in the kingdom of Houssa, and either killed by the spears of the natives or drowned in the river. His son, a fine young man, visited Africa in 1827, with the design of penetrating into the interior, and completing those discoveries which his father's death had left unaccomplished; but died by poison, it is thought, in the Akimboo country.—Dr Lichtenstein, a German, Mr Campbell, the well-known missionary traveller, and various missionaries in that quarter, have communicated interesting information regarding that part of Africa which lies immediately northwards from Cafferland.—Messrs Salt, Bruce, Burckhardt, and Caillaud have thrown considerable light upon the geography of Eastern Africa.—To the recent expeditions of Messrs Denham and Clapperton we are indebted for much of our knowledge regarding Central Africa.—Captain Tuckey's unfortunate though magnificently planned expedition, has added a little to our knowledge respecting the Congo river.—Rennel, Barrow, M'Queen, and Murray, in our own country; and Ritter, Ukert, and Walckenaer on the continent, have contributed, by their joint labours, to elucidate and arrange many points of African geography.

Summary view of the present state of African Geography.] The outlines of this continent, then, and a fringe-like space of the coast-lands are pretty well known to us, especially to the N.E. and N. From the north of the 10th parallel, and from the 25th to the 40th degree of W. long. our notions of African geography are somewhat satisfactory. But what a gap betwixt Darfoor and the course of the White Nile; to say nothing of Meroe, the Abyssinian Alps, and the western shore of the Arabian gulf! In South Africa, English missionaries have penetrated to the 26th and even 24th southern parallel, and we know the general course of the Orange river. The river of Zack upon the left side of the Orange river, and the feeders of the Elephant river more to the S. have been visited. But among the questions which yet remain to be solved in this quarter are: the sources of both branches of the Orange river,—the source of the Fish river,—the connection of the chains of mountains,—the issue of the river of Zack, and

of those of Mosbowa and Mokassa more to the N.,—the extent and direction of the longitudinal chain of the Kamhanni mountains,—the geography of the Lapata chain,—and of the lake Maravi to the eastward. From the 5th southern parallel to the cape of Good Hope, the lines followed by travellers leave scarcely any interval, but that between the 19th and 26th degree of S. lat. except a space in the N. E. All the equatorial zone, from the 5th southern parallel to the 10th north, is completely unknown, with the exception of two strips. It is in this vast space that modern geographers find ample room for speculation and theory. Park's second journey laid open the country to Boussem. Between Senegal and the mountains of Kong, the travels of Adanson, Watt, Winterbottom, Mollien, Laing, and others, have made us pretty well acquainted with the geographical features of the country; but, beyond this, and as far as the confines of Morocco, we know only a narrow border of the continent. It was here that a Houghton, a Roentgen, and a Cochelet, successively fell sacrifices to their daring enterprise and Moorish perfidy.—Browne and Hornemann have the reputation of being the first visitors of Siwah; Hornemann prolonged this line to Fezzan; Lyon went still farther, and discovered the shortest route to Moursook; Oudney and his fellow-travellers, starting from the latter place, crossed the Sahara and reached the capital of Bornou, till then placed by geographers 600 miles more to the N.E. than it should have been. One of them, Major Denham, continued his route of discovery 300 miles farther, and on rejoining his companions in Bornou, revealed to them the existence of a vast transversal chain, between the 9th and 10th northern parallels, and of a vast central lake—the existence of which had long been doubted—into which the Niger, or at least a river which comes from the quarter of Timbuctoo and Houssa, flows. Finally a Laing and a Caillie have penetrated to the mysterious city of Timbuctoo—the former to meet a tragical death, the latter to give his researches and descriptions to a sceptical world. Such is the latest state of the discoveries of Europeans in interior Africa. "What an immense void," says M. Jomard in his "*Coup d'œil sur les progrès et l'état actuel des découvertes dans l'intérieur de l'Afrique*;" "What an immense void is found on a map bounded by these discoveries! What solution is there of the continuity of the 20 or 25 principal lines which African travellers have followed? We have computed the total extent of these lines traversed during 40 years, and have estimated it at 22,000 geographical miles, comprehending therein even the excursions of Poncet in 1698, and those of Bruce in 1768 and 1773. Admitting that each observer has constantly surveyed with his eye an horizon of three leagues in diameter, (and this is a good deal,) we have then but a surface of 28,000 square leagues; and what is this superficies compared with the total of Africa, estimated at 1,400,000 square leagues? Thus Europe scarcely knows a fiftieth part of interior Africa; beyond that, all is confusion and doubt."

General Divisions.] It is difficult to classify, and still more to particularize the different States of which Africa is composed. Ukert, in his laborious and recent account of this imperfectly known division of the globe, has adopted the following arrangement:

I. CAUCASIAN COUNTRIES: viz.

1. Egypt.
2. Countries on the Nile, S. from Egypt, as far as Abyssinia, and extending to the sources of the Nile.
3. Abyssinia and the surrounding countries.

4. Countries around the Atlas.
5. The Sahara or Desert, with the Oases.

II. NEGRO COUNTRIES: viz.

1. The countries on the coast, from the White Cape to the Great Fish river, including Senegambia, and Upper and Lower Guinea.
2. Countries of the interior, including Soodan or Nigritia, the districts between Ashantee and Timbuctoo, Houassa, and the countries to the E. of Soodan as far as Nubia.
3. South Africa, including the Cape colony, the districts of the Hotentots, Cafferland, and the countries stretching along the eastern coast, from Delagoa bay to the boundaries of Abyssinia.

III. THE ISLANDS.

This arrangement, though founded on somewhat doubtful ethnographical principles, may be adopted as a kind of general index to the subjoined arrangement of African countries and states.

I. NORTHERN AFRICA.

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|---------------------------------|---|--|
| I. NILOTIC COUNTRIES. | { | 1. EGYPT, with MARMARICA and the OASES.
2. NUBIA, with DONGOLA and SENNAAR.
3. ABYSSYNIA, with the country of the GALLAS and frontier States.
4. ADEL and AJAN.
5. DARFOOR and KORDOFAN.
6. The SAHARA. |
| II. BARBARY, or MOORISH AFRICA. | { | 7. TRIPOLI, with BARCA and FREZZAN.
8. TUNIS.
9. ALGIERS.
10. MOROCCO, with FEZ, SUZ, and TAFI-LET. |

II. EASTERN AFRICA.

1. ZANGUEBAR; 2. MOZAMBIQUE; 3. MOCARANGA, with SOFALA and INHAMBANE; 4. DELAGOA.

III. CENTRAL AFRICA.

1. BEGHARMI and BERGOO; 2. BORNOU, MANDARA, and LOGGUN;
 3. The FELLATAH KINGDOM; 4. TIMBUCTOO; 5. BORGOO; 6. YOURIBA; 7. BAMBARA with JENNE.

IV. WESTERN AFRICA.

1. SENEGAMBIA. 2. GUINEA.

V. SOUTHERN AFRICA.

1. CAPE COLONY. 2. CAFFRARIA and INTERIOR DISTRICTS.

VI. THE ISLANDS.

Among the numerous African islands not included in any of the foregoing States, are:—THE MADEIRAS, THE CANARIES, THE CAPE VERD ISLANDS, FERNANDO PO, ASCENSION, ST HELENA, TRISTAN D'ACUNHA, MADAGASCAR, THE COMORAS, BOURBON, THE MAURITIUS, and SOCOTORO.

EGYPT.

EGYPT has been called 'the connecting link between Africa and the civilized world'; it belongs also at once to classic and to sacred geography. Unique in its antiquities, and remarkable in its physical features,—venerable in its history, and politically and commercially important in its position and resources,—'the land of Egypt' offers to the eye of the man of science and letters, the statesman, and the philanthropist, one of the most interesting portions of the Eastern world. The interest arising from all these sources has derived an extraordinary increase of intensity from recent events. The discoveries of Burckhardt and Banks, Drovetti and Caillaud, Buckingham and Belzoni, Waddington and Hanbury, Hamilton and Leake, have made the present generation familiarly acquainted with her caverns and temples and pyramids,—her gods and mummies and amulets,—after having been invisible to Europeans for nearly a score of centuries; Young and Champollion have lifted the veil from her mysterious hieroglyphics, and unrolled those historical records which baffled the scrutiny of Grecian sages; and, as if to respond to this growing enthusiasm on the part of Europe, a political chief has appeared in the person of the present pasha of Egypt, whose policy—though not always sound in principle—has done more for the regeneration of that country, within the last fifteen years, than all his predecessors effected during as many centuries.

Name.] In the Hebrew scriptures, Egypt is denominated the land of *Mizraim* or *Misraim*; Josephus called it *Mestra*; the Septuagint translators, *Mestram*; Eusebius and Suidas, *Mestraia*; and the Turks and Arabs still call it *Messer*, *Massr*, or *Missir*; and also *Kift*, *Kopt*, or *El-Kebit*. By its ancient inhabitants it was called *Chemia*; the appellation which it still retains among the Copts. *Egypt* is a name of very doubtful etymology, as indeed all the other appellations of this country are. Homer, Diodorus Siculus, and Xenophon called the Nile *Aiguptos*. Eusebius—who is supposed to have followed Manetho the Egyptian historian—states that Rameses, who reigned in Egypt, according to Usher, B.C. 1577, was also called *Ægyptus*, and that he gave his name to his kingdom. Bruce says that *Y-Gypt*, the name given to Egypt in Ethiopia, means 'the country of canals.'

Boundaries.] This country is bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean; on the E. by an imaginary line drawn from Khan-Jounee, at the S.W. extremity of Syria, to the northern extremity of the Arabian gulf or Red Sea, which divides it from Asia, and forms the chief part of the eastern boundary; on the S. by Nubia, the frontier being here determined by an imaginary line drawn from the bottom of the gulf of Immonde in the parallel of 24° 23' and meridian of Khargeh; and on the W. by the deserts of Libya and Barca, so as to include the Great and Little Oasis, the Oasis of Dakhel, and that of Farafre. The northern coast is low and sandy, and offers no remarkable point except Cape Bourlos; that along the Arabian gulf is more extensive, rocky, and abrupt, and towards the S. is bordered with small islands, such as Cheduan, and the isle of Emeralds, near Cape Nosi or Ras-el-Enf, the only promontory on the coast.

Extent.] According to D'Anville's map, this country is situated between 23° 40' and 31° 28' N. lat.; and 30° and 34° 36' E. long. which

makes its length from N. to S. 468 geographical or about 530 British miles, and its greatest breadth, from E. to W., 230 geographical, or 264 British miles; but its breadth in general is a great deal less. Modern French geographers place Cape Bourlos, the extreme northern point of Egypt, in $31^{\circ} 37'$, and the gulf of Immonde, the extreme southern point, in $23^{\circ} 23'$ N. lat.; other authors assign different admeasurements both to the length and the breadth of Egypt. The truth is, it is impossible to fix the western boundaries of this country with exactness. According to Agaba they run to "the large and extensive height towards the West," 82 hours from Abousir. Della Cella extends Egypt still farther, to the neighbourhood of the gulf of Bomba, where Cape Trabuco is reckoned by some geographers as belonging to Tripoli, and by others assigned to Egypt. Some again terminate the southern boundary-line at Assouan, and others extend it to Teffa. So little certainty of admeasurement is there in the geography of a country where the truths of geometry, and consequently the fundamental principles of geographical science are supposed to have been discovered, and which gave birth to Ptolemy, one of the most celebrated of ancient geographers! Templeman reckons the superficial extent of Egypt at 197,842 English square miles; Gatterer and Stein assign to it 140,760 square miles. Some French geographers estimate it at 20,000 square leagues, and others at 24,000. These, and all other similar calculations, must of course be mere approximations, founded on rather vague data; and it ought to be recollected that this extent of surface is merely nominal in point of value; for, with the exception of the Delta, and the narrow valley of the Nile, or about one-tenth of the whole, the rest of the country is a mere desert.

Divisions.] Egypt has been politically divided since a very early period into three parts, which are distinctly marked out by their physical features also, namely:

		Modern Provinces.	Villages.	Population.
UPPER EGYPT.	{ Called by the ancients the <i>Thebaid</i> , and by the Arabs <i>Said</i> , and extending from Syene to Chemnia.	1. Thebes & Esnah,	195	96,888
		2. Girgeh or Jirgeh,	374	326,160
		3. Siout or Suyut,	306	189,900
MIDDLE EGYPT.	{ The <i>Heptanomid</i> of the ancients, and <i>Oustanieh</i> or <i>Vos-tani</i> of the Arabs; extending from Chemnis to Circasorus.	4. Minieh or Menyeh,	250	154,256
		5. Beny Soufe,	367	184,120
		6. Fayoum,	66	58,480
		7. Atfieh or Atfih,	80	45,928
LOWER EGYPT.	{ The <i>Delta</i> , or Arabian <i>Bahari</i> , and the country on both sides of the Delta.	8. Gizeh, a portion of the southern part of which belongs to Upper Egypt	120	101,920
		9. Killyub or Quelioub,	140	177,488
		10. Charquieh or Sharkiyeh,	310	199,668
		11. Mansourah or Dahliyah,	315	197,000
		12. Damietta,		13,600
		13. Garbieh or Abyar,	360	230,456
		14. Menouf,	312	224,480
		15. Rashid or Rosetta,		13,440
		16. Baheirah or Bah-hireh,	280	89,528
		CAIRO with Bulac,		218,560
		ALEXANDRIA,		12,528
				<hr/> 3475 2,513,400

The population and villages above enumerated, were reported by the collectors of the *miri* imposed by the present pasha in 1821.

CHAP. I.—HISTORY.

EGYPT is the most ancient kingdom concerning which any memorial has been preserved in the sacred writings of the Hebrews, or in the traditions and researches of the Greeks. Within the succession of a few generations after the deluge, the Egyptians had grown up into a great nation, cultivating the arts of peace under the rule of a monarch, and distributed into different classes for the practice of distinct trades and professions.

" Oldest of mortals they who peopled earth,
Ere yet in heaven the sacred signs had birth,
• • • • •
Ere men the lunar wanderings learned to read ;
Ere yet the heroes of Denmark's blood
Pelasgia peopled with a glorious brood :
The fertile plains of Egypt flourished then,
Productive cradle of the first of men."

APOLLONIUS RHODIUS.

An order of priests recorded and communicated, from generation to generation, the system of their religious belief and worship, and were the teachers of whatever parts of knowledge and science were not mysteriously concealed from the people. Agriculture was the employment of a very great proportion of the inhabitants of the country. The monarch had disciplined soldiers for his guard, and all the pomp of a court. Pastoral occupations were not unknown or unpractised, but in comparison with agriculture were overlooked. Various mechanical arts were used to provide many of the secondary accommodations of life. Houses were built of coarse bricks. The bodies of the dead were curiously embalmed. The corn of Egypt was exchanged for the spices, pearls, slaves, and precious metals, which strangers brought to purchase it. Such was the condition of human life in Egypt, when the ancestors of the Jewish nation were driven by famine, to go down from the parched plains of Syria into this land of fertility and plenty. Abraham is supposed to have visited Egypt about 1918 B.C. or 430 years after the deluge, according to the received computation, and at that time we are not historically acquainted with any permanent settlements having been made even in southern Asia. The kingdom of Thebes in Upper Egypt is supposed to have been founded soon after the dispersion of the Noachite family, although the name does not occur in the Old Testament. In the time of Homer this city was still the boast of Egypt ; but in the reign of Osymandias the seat of the monarchy was transferred from Thebes to Memphis, which continued to be the royal residence till destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, about 567 B.C. It is not to be supposed, however, that the whole of Egypt was, in these early times, in the possession of one monarch ; on the contrary, in the very fact of the existence of several rival cities, we have abundant evidence of the existence of rival States. There are seven districts in which the various dynasties of Egyptian monarchs are said to have held sway : Diospolis or Thebes, Memphis, Tanis, Bubastis, Saïs, Sethron, and Elephantine. Doubtless some of these dynasties were at least collateral, but national vanity or ignorance has made them successive. The ancient periods of Egyptian history were preserved by means of hieroglyphics known only to the priests, who assured Herodotus that by means of these records they could trace

their national history during a period of 50,000 years. Menes, they affirmed, was the first Egyptian king of mortal race, for before his time the Egyptians had been governed by immortals. But as 331 of the successors of Menes are recorded in the Egyptian annals, if those documents could be at all trusted, the period which had elapsed between the beginning of his reign and the time of Herodotus, would amount to 3,320 years, allowing only 10 years to each reign; and the foundation of Memphis by Menes would be carried back to the 38th century before the Christian era! All tradition and historical monuments, however, refer us to early inroads of foreign tribes, and the conquest of various parts of Egypt by these fierce hordes. These inroads appear to have been made partly from Ethiopia, after that the arts had been introduced into Upper and Middle Egypt, and partly from Asia by tribes of Phœnician and Arabian origin. These latter conquerors were the *Aurita* or shepherd-kings who, according to Josephus, maintained themselves in Egypt 511 years. They are said to have lived in a state of constant hostility with the natives until their expulsion into Syria about 1674 B.C. The Diospolitan monarchs were contemporary with the shepherd-kings and with the Pharaohs of Misraim or Lower Egypt.

Sesostris.] After an obscure interval, of which the duration is not precisely known, appeared Sesostris, of whom so many fictions have been related under the name of history. By Sir Isaac Newton this extraordinary personage is supposed to be the Shishack who took Jerusalem in the reign of Rehoboam; while Mr Whiston supposes him to be the Pharaoh who was drowned in the Red sea, and Bryant considers him to have been altogether an ideal hero. Manetho makes him the son of Sesonchosis, and the 2d king of the 12th Egyptian dynasty. Herodotus calls him (or his son) Pheron,—a corruption, probably, of Pharaoh. Bredow supposes this Egyptian Alexander to have flourished in the 13th century before the Christian era. According to the calculations of some German-chronologists, Sesostris Rhames, or the Great, lived in the time of Moses, and was the son of that Pharaoh who perished in the Red sea while pursuing the Israelites. It is difficult, indeed impossible, to determine this point of chronology, but there seems no sound reason to doubt the actual existence of this personage. Diodorus Siculus informs us that, while yet a youth, he subdued Arabia. He next conquered Libya; and on his accession to the throne, rendered the Ethiopians his tributaries. Having organised a vast army he invaded Asia, crossed both the Indus and Ganges, penetrated to the Eastern ocean, turned north upon the Tanais, and founded a colony upon the borders of Europe. Returning home, after nine years' absence, he set himself to improve his Egyptian kingdom. He fortified the E. side of Egypt with a wall which ran from Pelusium through the desert to Heliopolis; he dug canals, which branched out from the Nile, all the way from Memphis to the sea; he erected a temple in every city of Egypt; and covered the whole land with columns and obelisks and triumphal monuments.

Psammetichus and his successors.] After the death of Sesostris another chasm in Egyptian history presents itself, concluding with the reign of a king Amasis. We next meet successively with Cetes contemporary with Priam, and Remphis, and Cheops, Cephren and Mycerinus, the builders of the pyramids. At last Psammetichus, the son of Nechus, was raised to the throne, about 679 B.C. Manetho enumerates Psammetichus as the 5th sovereign of the Saitic dynasty. He was probably prince of Sais.

With the assistance of Grecian mercenaries he fixed his capital at Bubastus, on the Pelusian arm of the Nile, where he applied himself to the encouragement of commerce. He was succeeded by Nechus, the Pharaoh-Necho of Scripture, about 617 B.C. Egypt had now got a navy, and commerce flourished at Naucrates, but from this period also this country became involved in the wars of Southern Asia. The forests of Lebanon attracted the cupidity of Nechus II. and led him to attempt the conquest of Syria and Phœnicia. Josiah, king of Judah, being in alliance with the Assyrian king, refused to let the Egyptian army pass through his kingdom; whereupon a battle ensued in the vale of Megiddo, in which Josiah lost his life. The conqueror now penetrated to the Euphrates, and took the great city of Carchemish; but soon after, encountering the Babylonian king Nebuchadnezzar, at Carchemish, he was defeated and stripped of all his Asiatic conquests. Among his successors was Apries, the Pharaoh-Hophra of Scripture, with whom Zedekiah, king of Judea, entered into so rash and fatal an alliance. Apries attempted the conquest of Cyrene, a Grecian colony in Africa, but the enterprise failed, and Apries—as had been predicted by the prophet Jeremiah—fell by the hands of rebels soon after. Under the usurper, Amasis, Egypt enjoyed much tranquillity, and is stated to have contained no fewer than 20,000 populous towns. In his reign the Grecian philosopher, Pythagoras, visited Egypt. His dispute with Cyrus, on account of his alliance with Croesus, occasioned the attack of Cambyses, who defeated the Egyptian forces under Psammetichus, the son of Amasis, at Pelusium, and took possession of Memphis in 525 B.C. After this event, Egypt formed a province of the Persian empire for the space of 193 years. Psammetichus was the last native sovereign of Egypt; thus the prophecy of Ezekiel (ch. xxx. 19.) has been wonderfully fulfilled: "There shall be no more a prince of the land of Egypt."

Ptolemy I.] When the dominions of Darius were seized by Alexander the Great, Egypt received the conqueror with no show of resistance, and the vanity of the Macedonian was flattered by his being pronounced the son of Jupiter Ammon, when he visited the temple of that deity. On the death of Alexander, Ptolemy Lagus, afterwards called Soter, obtained the viceroyalty of Egypt, with Libya and part of Arabia. He greatly enlarged and beautified Alexandria, making it the capital of his dominions; he likewise founded a college and library in that city, which, in consequence, became the abode of learned men. Having added Palestine, Syria, and Phœnicia to his dominions, he closed an illustrious life in the 84th year of his age, and 39th of his reign, 284 B.C.

Ptolemy II. to Cleopatra.] His son and successor Ptolemy Philadelphus founded Ptolemais, completed the canal of Suez which his father had begun, and built the Pharos or light-house. He died in 247 B.C.—His son, Ptolemy Euergetes, was a warlike and successful prince, and showed much kindness to the Jews.—He was succeeded, 221 B.C., by Ptolemy Philopater, an execrable despot, whose career was brief and inglorious.—His son Ptolemy Epiphanes, enjoyed only a brief reign.—On his death the queen-mother, Cleopatra, succeeded to the administration; and after her demise, Ptolemy Philopater ascended the throne. He was taken prisoner by Antiochus Epiphanes, king of Syria, and his younger brother, Euergetes II., surnamed *Phycon* for his corpulence and gluttony, was raised to the vacant throne. Phycon's atrocities were of the most hideous description; yet he was allowed to end his days at Alexandria, in the 67th year of his age, and 29th of his reign, 122 B.C.—During the succeeding reigns of Ptolemy,

Lathyrus, Alexander II., and Ptolemy X., the country was distracted by a series of civil contests, in which every enormity was committed, and the predictions of Isaiah (ch. xix. 2.) strikingly verified: "I will set the Egyptians against the Egyptians; and they shall fight every one against his brother, and every one against his neighbour—city against city, and kingdom (*nome*) against kingdom." Ptolemy X., a weak effeminate creature, who had won for himself, by his effeminate habits, the name of *Auletes* or 'the flute-player,' threw himself on the protection of the Romans, and bribed the favour of Julius Cæsar, then consul at Rome, by presenting him with 6000 talents, or about £1,162,500. Driven from his kingdom by his subjects, who despised him, he was eventually replaced upon his throne by the Roman general, Mark Anthony. At his death he left his children under the protection and tuition of Rome.—Ptolemy XI. and Ptolemy XII. were successively associated with their sister, Cleopatra, in the government of Egypt. The death of Cleopatra closed the dynasty of the Ptolemies, after it had lasted about 294 years, and Egypt was converted into a Roman province.

Egypt under Rome.] Under the prefecture of Ælius Gallus, an abortive attempt was made to reduce the Arabian peninsula. In A. D. 117, the emperor Adrian visited this province of his dominions, and remained there for two years. While the emperor Probus commanded in Egypt, he executed many important works in that country. Diocletian punished the cities of Alexandria, Busiris, and Coptos, in a very severe manner, for having rebelled against his authority. Christianity was probably early introduced into Egypt, as there were Jewish proselytes of Egypt, Libya, and Cyrene, present at the outpouring of the Holy Ghost, on the feast of Pentecost, many of whom probably embraced the doctrines of the Apostles, and introduced them into their native country. Gibbon has sketched the following outline of the introduction of Christianity into this country: "The extensive commerce of Alexandria, and its proximity to Palestine, gave an easy entrance to the new religion. It was first embraced by great numbers of the *Therapeutæ*, or Essenians of the lake Mareotis,—a Jewish sect, which had abated much of its reverence for the Mosaic ceremonies. The austere life of the Essenians, their fasts and excommunications, the community of goods, the love of celibacy, their zeal for martyrdom, and the warmth, though not the purity, of their faith, already offered a very lively image of the primitive discipline. It was in the school of Alexandria that the Christian theology appears to have assumed a regular and scientific form; and when Hadrian visited Egypt, he found a church, composed of Jews and of Greeks, sufficiently important to attract the notice of that inquisitive prince. But the progress of Christianity was for a long time confined within the limits of a single city, which was itself a foreign colony; and till the close of the second century, the predecessors of Demetrius were the only prelates of the Egyptian church. Three bishops were consecrated by the hands of Demetrius, and the number was increased to twenty by his successor Heraclas. The body of the natives—a people distinguished by a sullen inflexibility of temper—entertained the new doctrine with coldness and resistance; and even in the time of Origen, it was rare to meet with an Egyptian who had surmounted his early prejudices in favour of the sacred animals of his country. As soon, indeed, as Christianity ascended the throne, the zeal of those barbarians obeyed the prevailing impulsion; the cities of Egypt were filled with bishops, and the deserts of Thebais swarmed with hermits." Egypt, the fruitful parent of

superstition, afforded the first example of the monastic life, in the person of Anthony, of saintly fame. So well did Anthony's views please the Egyptians, that in a short time the number of monks were almost equal to the remainder of the people.⁷ The Alexandrian church was early corrupted by the introduction of those metaphysical subtleties with which vain men have ever attempted to destroy the simplicity of the Christian faith. The disputes of the Arian, Catholic, and Heathen factions, at Alexandria, were long and fierce. In the reign of Theodosius, paganism was finally suppressed; but the valuable library of Alexandria perished in the tumult which was raised on this occasion. The struggles of a perpetual succession of rival or schismatical patriarchs, fill up the annals of Egypt's history, until the Saracen invaders appeared upon its frontiers.

[*Saracen Invasion.*] Memphis was first taken by the general of Omar; Alexandria surrendered some time afterwards; and being given up to pillage, its third library perished in the hands of its ruthless captors. Reduced to a province of the Mahommedan empire, Egypt claims but a slight notice from history. With the intermission of a few years, during which it was in some measure an independent State, Egypt was governed by the khaliffs of Bagdad, till the year 968, when it was reduced by Moez, the Fatimite khaliff of Cairwan, a petty State in Barbary. During a considerable period, the throne of Egypt was filled with princes of this dynasty, whose viziers, or prime ministers, usually left to their masters only the shadow of power. The last of the Fatimites expired in 1171, when Saladin, of a more ambitious disposition, and possessed of greater abilities than any of his predecessors, in the office of vizier, assumed the sole power; and, favoured by particular circumstances, declared himself, in 1173, sovereign of Egypt. Not being a descendant of Mahomet, he could not be denominated *khaliff*, which implies the sacerdotal as well as kingly office. On this account he chose the name of *sultan*, and left the office of pontiff to be filled by a descendant of the prophet.

[*Saladin.*] The powers of Europe were, about this time, exhausting themselves, by endeavouring to take from the Turks the holy land,—a country which did not belong to them, and from the possession of which they did not hope to reap any other advantage than being able to protect such Christians as resorted to Jerusalem in pilgrimage. But, in order to obtain this, mighty armies were levied; kings left their own dominions a prey to anarchy and confusion, to attempt the overthrow of the Mahomme-

⁷ "The monks were divided into two classes; the Canobites, who lived under a common and regular discipline, and the Anachorets, who indulged their unsocial independent fanaticism. The most devout, or the most ambitious of the spiritual brethren renounced the convent, as they had renounced the world. The fervent monasteries of Egypt, Palestine, and Syria, were surrounded by a *Laura*, a distant circle of solitary cells; and the extravagant penance of the hermits was stimulated by applause and emulation. They sank under the painful weight of crosses and chains; and their emaciated limbs were confined by collars, bracelets, gauntlets, and grooves of massy and rigid iron. All superfluous incumbrance of dress they contemptuously cast away; and some savage saints of both sexes have been admired, whose naked bodies were only covered by long hair. They aspired to reduce themselves to the rude and miserable state in which the human brute is scarcely distinguished above his kindred animals; and a numerous sect of Anachorets derived their name (*Baran*) from their humble practice of grazing in the fields of Mesopotamia with the common herd. They often usurped the den of some wild beast, whom they affected to resemble; they buried themselves in some gloomy cavern which art or nature had scooped out of the rock; and the marble quarries of Thebais are still inscribed with the monuments of their penance. The most perfect hermits are supposed to have passed many days without food, many nights without sleep, and many years without speaking; and glorious was the man (I abuse that name,) who contrived any cell, or seat, of a peculiar construction, which might expose him, in the most inconvenient posture, to the inclemency of the season."—*Gibbon*.

dans in the eastern countries; the pope called the war holy; indulgences of the fullest kind were granted to the crusaders; and the excessive cruelties committed were considered as acts of devotion. Every hero was a saint; every soldier a devotee; and the Church might then, both in a metaphorical and in a literal sense, be emphatically called *militant*. Saladin, who had over-run a great extent of territory in the neighbourhood of Egypt, the scene of this invasion of the Christians, was naturally induced to turn his arms against those who appeared to be such inveterate enemies of his religion, and who fought for the possession of countries over which he claimed the sovereignty. William II. of Sicily had indeed carried his arms into Egypt itself, and, with a numerous army, laid siege to Alexandria. Saladin approached to its relief, and the Christians, without daring to venture an engagement, fled, leaving behind them all their military stores and baggage. But the sultan was not so fortunate in his next engagement with the crusaders. In 1177 he led his army into Palestine, and attacked the crusaders; but was defeated, with the loss, it is said, of 40,000 men upon the field, besides a great number who perished in their flight homewards through the desert. In 1182, Saladin undertook another expedition into Syria, but was not more successful than formerly, being repulsed from Aleppo and Al Mawael. At sea, however, his admirals obtained a complete victory over the fleet of the Christians. In 1183, Saladin returned into Syria, and having taken Aleppo and four other cities, turned his arms against the crusaders, who were assembled in great force at Sepphoris in Galilee. All his exertions, however, could not bring them to an engagement at this time; but, in 1187, he gained a victory which surpassed all his former conquests. A battle was fought near Tiberias, and was renewed with redoubled fury and the most inveterate obstinacy for three successive days, at the conclusion of which the Franks were completely vanquished. The king of Jerusalem was taken prisoner, with Arnold the prince of Al Shawbee, and the masters of the two military orders at Jerusalem. Following his advantage, Tiberias was immediately besieged by Saladin, and in a short time capitulated. Acre, or Ptolemais, next surrendered; and having divided his army into three bodies, Nespelis, Caesarea, and Sepphoris, soon fell into his hands. Joppa made a vigorous resistance, but was taken by storm; Tripoli, in the neighbourhood of Sidon, was taken after a siege of six days; Sidon itself surrendered at the first summons; Berytus capitulated in seven, and Ascalon after a siege of fourteen days. Jerusalem was next invested, and a breach being made in the walls, the garrison capitulated, and were permitted to march out with their families and effects.

The rapid conquests of Saladin made the Franks in the East entirely to lose courage. Their grief was extreme; but not so much on account of the numbers killed, as that the holy land, and its sacred relics, were once more in the power of infidels. Thierri, grand preceptor of the military order of Templars, writing to his brethren in the West, concerning the misfortunes of the Christians, says: the "king is taken, and what is still more deplorable, the precious wood of the true cross is fallen into the hands of the infidels. The garrison of Jerusalem considered themselves as particularly unfortunate, that they were obliged to deliver up with their own hands the holy city." "Men, women, and children," says Victor, "young and old, prostrated themselves before the holy sepulchre, bathing it with their tears, kissing and embracing it." In Europe, nothing could equal the consternation with which the tidings were received. We are

even told by the writers of those times, that the pope died of grief! Public prayers and fasts were appointed on the occasion; and Roger de Hoveden assures us, that "the cardinals resolved to avoid every species of pleasure and amusement,—to receive no presents from such as had causes depending in the court of Rome,—and never to mount horse so long as the holy land was trodden under foot by the infidels." It is almost needless to add, that they were not so foolish as to put any of these resolutions into execution.

Saladin continued to pursue his success; and, though in some instances, his designs terminated unfavourably, he was generally fortunate. After reducing Laodicea, and many other places, he advanced against Antioch; whereupon Bohemond, the prince of that place, was so intimidated, that he begged a truce for eight months, which was granted him. In the mean time, the scattered forces of the Christians collected themselves; and forgetting their former dissensions—which had long prevented them from acting with unanimity—consulted on the measures proper to be adopted for their common preservation, while they received from Europe powerful re-inforcements. In 1189, the army of the Franks amounted to nearly 40,000 men. They first made themselves masters of Alexandretta, and then laid siege to Ptolemais, during which they were attacked by Saladin,—but completely defeated him, killing 10,000 of his men. The besiegers, however, had been baffled in every attempt upon Ptolemais, for the space of three years, when Richard I. of England, commonly called Cœur de Lion, and Philip II. of France, arrived with a numerous army. Of these, the former, if not the most skilful, was certainly the most intrepid general of his time; and at that period, intrepidity, rather than skill, seems to have had the chief influence in military undertakings. The arrival of a new army, headed by an able general, gave vigour to the attacks of the assailants; and Ptolemais was forced to surrender. A number of prisoners fell into the hands of the crusaders, for whom Saladin refused the ransom that had been demanded; whereupon, Richard, little to the honour of his humanity, caused 3,000 of them to be butchered in cold blood. The exertions made by Richard at the siege of Ptolemais—now known by the name of Acre—procured him the supreme command of the Christian army. Several historians inform us that he advanced to besiege Ascalon, and that Saladin met him on the way, with 300,000 men, whom he defeated; but other historians take no notice of this event. That a battle of such magnitude, had it been properly authenticated, should have been passed over by such as professedly wrote the history of the crusades, is not very probable. It may be considered, therefore, as at least doubtful; and that Richard's success was not very great may fairly be inferred from the necessity he was soon under of concluding a truce. This truce, according to the custom of the times, was to continue during three years, three months, three weeks, three days, and three hours. The whole sea-coast, from Jaffa to Tyre, was surrendered to the Christians; and the pilgrims of Europe, travelling to Jerusalem, were to be protected by Saladin himself. But scarcely had the king of England returned home, when the health of Saladin began to decline; and soon afterwards he closed his life, in the 55th year of his age, and 24th of his reign.

From Saladin to the French Invasion.] Saladin died in 1193, and was succeeded by his son Alariz, who neither possessed his father's courage nor abilities. The empire founded by Saladin continued to exist for some time, rather in consequence of the capacity of its founder, than of the

talents of its successive rulers. The history of this country presents no interesting event, till 1250, when the *Mamaluks*,^a a band of Circassian slaves, who had been trained to war—a task to which luxury had made the Egyptians themselves unequal—drove the sultan, Malek Al Salah, from the throne, and usurped the government. But, however brave the Mamaluks might be, their number was too small to maintain an absolute authority over the other parts of the Egyptian army. To establish their power, therefore, they followed a plan similar to that by which they themselves had been brought into Egypt. They purchased Christian slaves, chiefly from Circassia; and training them to the use of arms, placed them in garrisons, in different parts of the country, to serve as a check upon any insurrection. In this the Mamaluks showed themselves better soldiers than politicians. They did not foresee that this plan subjected them to the same danger which had proved fatal to the Egyptian sultans. Experience, in a short time, taught them this truth. The Christian slaves, to whom the name of *Borghites* was given, soon became much more powerful than their proprietors; and, sensible of their power, deposed their masters, and assumed the government of Egypt. The Borghites, by the same military exertions which had acquired it, preserved their authority during upwards of 200 years. In 1517 they were attacked by Selim, the Turkish sultan; and found their valour insufficient to sustain them against his numerous armies. Instead of entrusting the government of this part of his conquests to a pasha, Selim, for reasons which seem not to be clearly understood by historians, formed Egypt into a kind of republic, comprising 24 sandshaks, under the military jurisdiction of as many beys. In this government he allowed the Mamaluks—as the Borghites still called themselves—to have considerable influence; an influence which they were careful to augment, till it had almost annihilated the authority of the Turks; and, in 1746, Ibrahim might be considered as the master of Egypt. Ibrahim was succeeded by Ali Bey, whose impetuous valour rendered him a troublesome neighbour to the Turks; till, in 1773, he was succeeded by Mahommed Bey, who had been his general, and was suspected of having poisoned his master. Mahommed enjoyed his power only a few years; and his death was succeeded by numerous intestine commotions. Each chief who had wealth or craft sufficient to form a party, conceived that he had a chance for sovereignty; and, during the struggle, justice and humanity were equally forgotten. In the meantime, the Porte resolved to attempt the recovery of Egypt, now virtually independent of its authority. In July, 1786, the famous Hassan Pasha landed at Alexandria, with an army of 25,000 men, and defeated the Mamaluks, under Mourad, near Mentoobes. Having re-organized the government, Hassan signed a treaty with the rebel beys, by which he left them in full possession of the country from Barbich to the frontiers of Nubia; all below these limits being prohibited ground. Ismail, who was left in charge of affairs at Cairo, conducted himself vigorously, and kept the beys in subjection, until carried off by the plague, in 1790, when Cairo reverted to its former masters: the country south of the capital being allotted to Ibrahim, and the regions northward to Mourad.

French Invasion.] Such was the state of Egypt when the French, or rather Bonaparte, undertook that expedition, which bears some resemblance to the crusades of ancient times. The affair was contrived, projected,

^a The word *mamlouk*, or *mamlouk*, is the participle passive of *malak*, 'to possess,' signifying, therefore, one who is the possession or property of another.

and executed by Bonaparte, without any further reference to the Directory than the necessary forms of office required. Bonaparte's motive was the love of glory, and a secret consciousness that something more required to be done to dazzle the eyes of the French nation, before he seized the supreme power. We know, also, that Bonaparte wished to restore the ancient road to India, and to deprive the British of their Indian trade and territory. Our readers will be gratified with a somewhat circumstantial detail of this ever-memorable and singular campaign.

On the 20th of May, 1798, Bonaparte embarked at Toulon. The armament, under Brueys, consisted of 15 sail of the line and frigates, and upwards of 200 transports. The French, who had, for some time, endeavoured to reconcile the elegancies of literature with the convulsions of internal revolutions, and the shocks of external war, selected a number of learned individuals to accompany the army, and make such researches as their opportunities might enable them to engage in. With this mixture of scientific and warlike preparations, the fleet sailed; and on the 9th of June appeared before the fortress of Malta, which instantly capitulated. Leaving in Malta a garrison of 3,000 men, and having received a re-inforcement of 60 sail of transports, the fleet proceeded to Alexandria. On the 1st of July, general Bonaparte landed with 5,000 men at Marabon; and, marching to Alexandria, put to flight the Arabs and Mamalukes by whom it was defended, and made himself master of the city. Bonaparte then assembled the Turkish chiefs, and declared that his sole intention was to liberate Egypt from the oppression of the beys. He professed at the same time the highest reverence for the Mahomedan faith. Alexandria was put into what the French called a state of organization, and Bonaparte having led his army across the desert, Rosetta and Ramassieh submitted to different columns of the French army. Garrisons were left in both places; while the main body continued its march along the Nile, accompanied by a flotilla, towards Cairo. During this march, parties of the Arabs annoyed the flanks of the army; but nothing like serious opposition occurred till the army arrived near Gizeh, in the neighbourhood of the pyramids. Here Mourad Bey had collected his troops, and showed himself resolved to dispute the farther progress of the French general. Mourad's army was, in numbers, surpassed by that of the French, and still more in discipline; the strength of it consisted of 10,000 Mamalukes. These cavalry proved themselves to be no despicable adversaries; and the Egyptian army, for a long time, maintained its ground, but was at length obliged to yield to the more exact discipline and bayonets of the Europeans. This engagement, which has been called 'the battle of the pyramids,' put Cairo into the hands of the French. They entered it on the 22d of July. A party was immediately despatched to Upper Egypt, in pursuit of Mourad; another was left in Cairo; and with the third Bonaparte marched in search of Ibrahim, who shared with Mourad the sovereignty of Egypt, and who had retired into the eastern part of the Delta. Unable to meet with him, the French returned to Cairo, and with much solemnity celebrated the overflowing of the Nile. Garrisons were despatched to Damietta and Mansourah; and such regulations made as seemed to favour the permanency of the French power, and to secure the interests of their commerce in this quarter.

But, while the French army had with so much ease made themselves masters of Lower Egypt, the fleet which conducted them thither was by no means equally fortunate. A British fleet, commanded by admiral

Nelson—which had been despatched to intercept the French, when they first left Toulon—arrived at Malta two days after the French had sailed from it. Rightly supposing that Alexandria was their next place of destination, Nelson directed his course thither: but, passing them unperceived by the way, he conjectured that they had sailed to some other port, and proceeded immediately in search of them. He had scarcely lost sight of Alexandria, when the French fleet arrived; and, being informed that the British fleet was in search of them, admiral Brueys drew up his ships in order of battle, as near the shore as it was judged safe for them to approach. The British admiral having learned that the French were at anchor in the road of Aboukir, again made his appearance on the 1st of August; and, notwithstanding the situation of the French fleet, he hesitated not to engage. By one of those daring manœuvres, which only genius can conceive and courage and dexterity execute, he threw half of his squadron between the French fleet and the shore; and the engagement commenced with a tremendous fire on both sides. The action began before seven in the evening; at nine, the French admiral was killed; at ten, his ship *L'Orient*, of 120 guns, was blown up. The victory now evidently belonged to the British; but the contest was by no means finished. It continued during the whole of that night. Morning showed the French fleet totally disabled, and in the possession of the British. Of the whole squadron, only two ships of the line, and two frigates, escaped. The transports in the port of Alexandria could have been attacked; but the French had thrown up batteries on the shore for their protection; so that an attack, instead of completing the victory, might have risked the advantage which had been already gained. Leaving therefore commodore Hood to block up the port of Alexandria, and burning such of his prizes as he could not carry with him, Nelson sailed for Britain. By this engagement the situation of Bonaparte was rendered very precarious. The French navy in the Mediterranean was almost annihilated. To receive re-inforcements from France, or to return thither, appeared equally impracticable; so that all his address was necessary to conciliate the good will of the Egyptians, and all his courage to withstand the dangers by which he was surrounded.

In this emergency the vigour of Bonaparte's character became sufficiently conspicuous. To defend himself from the Turks in Syria, he erected forts at Balbeis and Salhaic; and Alexandria and Cairo were put in a more respectable state of defence. The French had been now about four months in Cairo, when the inhabitants took arms and attacked them. The commander of the city, general Dupuis, was killed; the struggle continued for forty-eight hours; and, for the first day, the insurgents had the advantage. The inhabitants annoyed the troops from the roofs of their houses, and prevented the cannon from entering into the narrow and crooked streets; two companies of grenadiers were repulsed, and if the Mahomedans had not, from superstitious motives, ceased to fight after it was night, most of the French who were in the city would have been cut off. The savans were under arms, in imminent danger; and some of the medical men fell in defending the hospital. But on the second day more troops came up and made horrible slaughter among the people; some thousands took shelter in a mosque and barricaded it; cannon was brought against it, and it was battered during the night; on the third morning the shiekhs came to entreat pardon, and the tumult ceased. Meanwhile, Ibrahim was overtaken and defeated by the troops sent in pursuit of him; and Desaix put to flight the troops of Mourad, after a desperate battle, near the

pyramids of Saccarah, in Upper Egypt. During these operations the French army was guilty of great enormities towards the inhabitants. Speaking of these, M. Miot remarks : " If in all the countries into which we have carried our victorious arms, we had shown a little more gentleness and a little less rapacity, the French name without doubt would have been loved as much as it is admired and dreaded." Denon tells us, that they followed the example of the Mamalukes, encamping before the towns and villages, and living at free quarters till the requisition was complied with. " Our cavalry," he says in another place, " fell in with a number of the enemy at Meusketto, and put to the sword a thousand of these deluded people. This was certainly not a lesson of fraternization ; but our position, perhaps, rendered an act of severity necessary ; this province required to be taught that it could not brave us with impunity ; it was, besides, our policy to conceal from them that our means were small, and our resources dispersed, and to give them the impression of our being as vindictive when provoked, as mild when treated with respect." " We, who boasted that we were more just than the Mamalukes, committed daily, and almost necessarily, a great number of iniquitous acts," adds the same savan in another part of his work.*

The Grand Signior, convinced that Bonaparte was not so disinterested as to subdue this part of his rebel territory in order to restore it to him, willingly agreed to join his forces to those of Britain, now anxious to expel the French from a situation which seemed to put it in their power to annoy our empire in India. To effect the expulsion of the French from Egypt, a plan of considerable magnitude was formed. Gezer Pasha, who had been nominated to the government of Egypt, was to lead a Turkish army through Asia Minor, and to attack the French on the side of Syria. At the same time, a descent was to be attempted at the mouths of the Nile. Mourad Bey's army, in Upper Egypt, was designed to make a diversion on that side ; and Sir Sidney Smith, who had sailed from Britain in the Tigre of 84 guns, was to direct the general execution of the attack, and to give assistance where he judged it necessary. Meanwhile, the tranquillity which the French enjoyed for a short time after the insurrection at Cairo was employed in scientific operations. The lake Menzaleh was surveyed ; the

* These are the honest confessions and the miserable apologies of M. Denon. He tells us that the soldiers were continually putting innocent peasants to death because they mistook them for enemies ; that they frequently mistook the poor merchants with whom they fell in for enemies also, and before the mistake could be rectified, shot them and plundered their merchandises. He tells us, that when the inhabitants, after the troops had passed on, returned to their houses, they found that utensils, ploughs, doors, roofs, in short, every thing combustible, had been burnt,—their corn consumed,—their fowls and pigeons devoured,—their earthen vessels broken in the mere wantonness of devastation,—nothing left but the fragments, and the bodies of the dogs killed in endeavouring to defend the property of their masters ! He tells us, that when they made any stay in a village, the inhabitants were summoned to return on pain of being treated as rebels ; and that when they submitted to these threats, and came to pay the contribution, they were sometimes mistaken with their clubs for men in arms, and sure of being assailed by several discharges from the riflemen and patrols, before an explanation could take place. He tells us, that they who did not abandon their houses, but paid the contribution, and supplied the wants of the army, 'avoided the unpleasant abode of the desert, saw their provisions eaten with regularity, and might come in for a portion of them, preserving a part of their doors, selling their eggs to the soldiers, and having a few of their wives and daughters ravished :—but they who chose this alternative were punished by the Mamalukes. He tells us, that during the whole expedition, a flock of kites and vultures followed them, hastening to their prey whenever the sound of cannon ceased, and always joined company with the army whenever it halted, being sure that something would always be left to their share. And he tells us, that at the island of Philoe they saw mothers drowning their children, whom they could not carry away, and mutilating the girls, to save them from the violence of the soldiers. And for all this he apologizes !

roads of Damietta, Cape Bongan, and the mouth of the Bibels were sounded ; and the Natron lakes and the canal of Suez were examined, and the levels taken from sea to sea. But as soon as Napoleon perceived that he was to be attacked by numerous forces and at different points, he resolved to meet the Turkish army, which was to proceed through Asia Minor, and thus to remove the chief seat of war from that country of which he was already possessed. To protect Egypt, he left part of his forces. Cairo was given in charge to Dugua ; Rosetta to Menou ; Alemyras was to command Damietta ; the superintendence of Alexandria was intrusted to Marmont ; and Desaix was to remain in Upper Egypt, to counteract the designs of the Mamalukes under Mourad Bey. The other, and by far the greater part of the army, under generals Kleber, Bon, Lannes, and Regnier, directed its march towards Syria.

Kleber, who in the absence of Bonaparte conducted the army destined to the invasion of Syria, on the 4th of February arrived at Cathich. He was here joined by Regnier, and proceeded to take possession of El Arish. The troops by whom it was occupied made a brave resistance ; but, finding that they could not maintain their position, they retired into the fortress. On the 17th of February Bonaparte joined the army ; and in two days the fortress of El Arish surrendered. Though the Turks were willing to check the progress of the French arms, they were strangers to the celerity of French military movements. Besides, their army could arrive in Egypt only by a very long march ; so that the French were approaching Syria long before the army appeared which had been appointed to attack them from that quarter. They quickly over-ran a great part of the country. Gaza yielded without resistance : and, though Jaffa, the ancient Joppa, made a vigorous defence, it could not withstand the efforts of the French army. The barbarous massacre of about 3700 of the garrison, four days after they had surrendered prisoners of war, will remain a lasting stain upon the character of Bonaparte.¹⁰

¹⁰ The following account of that transaction is from the pen of M. Miet, who served out rations to the prisoners after they surrendered,—who witnessed the massacre,—and who endeavours to justify it:—"On the 20 Ventose, (March 10,) in the afternoon, the Jaffa prisoners were put in motion, in the midst of a vast square battalion, formed by the troops of general Bon's division. A dark rumour of the fate which was prepared for them, determined me as well as many other persons, to mount on horseback, and follow this silent column of victims, to satisfy myself whether what had been told me was well founded. The Turks, marching pellmell, already foresaw their fate ; they shed no tears ; they uttered no cries ; they were resigned. Some, who were wounded, and could not march so fast as the rest, were bayonnetted on the way. Some others went about the crowd, and appeared to be giving salutary advice in this imminent danger. Perhaps the boldest might have thought that it would not be impossible for them to break through the battalion which surrounded them ; perhaps they hoped that in dispersing themselves over the plains which they were crossing, a certain number might escape death. Every means had been taken to prevent this, and the Turks made no attempt to escape. Having reached the sand-hills to the south-west of Jaffa, they were halted near a pool of stagnant and dirty water. Then the officer who commanded the troops had the mass divided into small bodies, and these being led to many different parts were there fassiladed. This horrible operation required much time, notwithstanding the number of troops employed in this dreadful sacrifice ; I owe it to these troops to declare that they did not without extreme repugnance submit to the abominable service which was required from their victorious hands. There was a group of prisoners near the pool of water, among whom were some old chiefs of a noble and resolute courage, and one young man whose courage was dreadfully shaken. At so tender an age he must have believed himself innocent, and that feeling hurried him on to an action which appeared to shock those about him. He threw himself at the feet of the horse on which the chief of the French troops rode, and embraced the knees of that officer, imploring him to spare his life, and exclaiming, Of what am I guilty ? What evil have I done ? His tears, his affecting cries were unavailing ; they could not change the fatal sentence pronounced upon his lot. With the exception of this young man, all the other Turks made their ablutions calmly in the stagnant water of which I have spoken, then taking

Sir Sydney Smith, anxious to oppose some powerful obstacle to the progress of the invaders of Syria, resolved to undertake the defence of St John d'Acre: hoping, that though he might not be able completely to repel the French troops, he might still gain time, till the expected reinforcements could arrive. To encourage the pasha, who commanded the place, he despatched colonel Philipeaux and an eminent engineer to add all possible strength to the ruinous fortifications. At the same time, he had the good fortune to capture the fleet of gun-boats, which had on board the greater part of the artillery intended for the siege. This artillery was immediately landed, and employed in the defence. Bonaparte, little doubting of success, having taken possession of Saffet, Nazareth, and Shefem, to facilitate his intended progress towards Damascus, and, having reconnoitred Acre, resolved to attack it upon the east. On the 20th of March, the trenches were opened. Within nine days, batteries and counter-batteries were mounted, and a breach was made in one of the towers. At the same time, the branch of a mine was sprung, by which the French imagined they had injured the counterscarp. Recollecting their success at Jaffa, they rushed to the attack; but, after passing the ditch, they were so vigorously opposed, that they retreated with precipitation. Smith, convinced that the defence of Acre depended more on the courage of his troops, than on the strength of the place, endeavoured, by frequent sallies, to interrupt the progress of the enemy's works. In this way much valour was exerted by both parties. The Turks perceived that the French were not irresistible; and they acquired that courage, and that confidence in the judgment of their British commander, which enabled them to repel those assaults which French skill and intrepidity so frequently directed against them.

To enumerate all the incidents which took place during the siege of Acre, however interesting it might be to one class of readers, is certainly foreign to the purpose of this historical sketch. The operations on both sides were the exertions of military address, prompted by military valour, and inflamed by military pride. Instead of the distant evolutions of a modern campaign, the combatants realized the desperate engagements of ancient times. Bonaparte, whose career of victories had not hitherto been interrupted, keenly urged his men to the combat. Almost daily, the French mounted the breach, and were no less constantly repulsed. Some-

each other's hand, after having laid it upon the heart and the lips, according to the manner of salutation, they gave and received an eternal adieu. I saw a respectable old man, whose tone and manners announced a superior rank. I saw him coolly order a hole to be made before him in the loose sand, deep enough to bury him alive; doubtless he did not choose to die by any other hands than those of his own people: within this protecting and dolorous grave he laid himself upon his back; and his comrades, addressing their supplicatory prayers to God, covered him presently with sand, and trampled afterwards upon the soil which served him for a winding sheet, probably with the idea of accelerating the end of his sufferings. This spectacle, which makes my heart palpitate, and which I paint but too feebly, took place during the execution of the parties distributed about the sand-hills. At length there remained no more of all the prisoners than those who were placed near the pool of water. Our soldiers had exhausted their cartridges; and it was necessary to destroy them with the bayonet and the sword. I could not support this horrible sight, but hastened away, pale, and almost fainting. Some officers informed me in the evening, that these unhappy men yielding to that irresistible impulse of nature which makes us shrink from death, even when we have no longer a hope of escaping it, strove to get one behind another, and received in their limbs the blows aimed at the heart which would at once have terminated their wretched lives. Then was there formed, since it must be related, a dreadful pyramid of the dead and the dying streaming with blood, and it was necessary to drag away the bodies of those who had already expired, in order to finish the wretches who, under cover of this frightful and shocking rampart, had not yet been reached. This picture is exact and faithful; and the recollection makes my hand tremble, though the whole horror is not described."

times incessant volleys were poured upon them as they attempted to cross the ditch, till the number of dead bodies was so great, that they were every where mingled with the ruins, and, built among sand-bags, served the besiegers to construct their ravelines. Sometimes they were permitted to mount the breach, and to proceed a certain length within it, when the Turks, suddenly brandishing their sabres, would rush forward with overwhelming impetuosity, and cut all down before them. At length, according to Sir Sydney Smith's report, the French refused to mount over the patriot bodies of their companions. A flag of truce was sent into the town, by the hand of an Arabian dervise, with a letter to the pasha, proposing a cessation of arms, for the purpose of burying the dead. The Turks and British were deliberating upon their answer, and were about to express their acceptance of the proposal, when a volley of shot and shells announced an unexpected assault. The garrison, however, was prepared for their reception, and repulsed them with a carnage which their perfidy had deserved. Unless this account can be shown to be false, it casts a shade upon Bonaparte's character, which can never be effaced by all his military excellence. Smith informs us, "that he saved the life of the Arab from the effect of the indignation of the Turks, and took him off to the Tigre, whence he sent him back to the general, with a message which made the army ashamed of having been exposed to such a merited reproof." Bonaparte, convinced that Acre was not to be taken either by force or stratagem, and considerable reinforcements having entered it from Rhodes, at last reluctantly resolved to retreat. As a preparatory measure, he sent off his sick and wounded; and redoubled his fire upon the town to prevent the Turks from interrupting his designs. The siege was raised on the 20th of May, after it had continued 61 days. After the French had thrown into the sea or buried such pieces of artillery as they could not carry with them, they commenced their retreat, burning and savaging every part of the country as they passed, to prevent an army from approaching the frontiers of Egypt.

To collect a force, sufficient to attack with success the army in Egypt, was now an object which occupied the attention of the Ottoman Porte. Troops designed for the attack of Alexandria were assembled at the island of Rhodes, under Seid Mustapha. During the absence of Bonaparte the Arabs had taken every opportunity to harass their French neighbours, and Dugua had sent against them several parties, and had burnt some of their villages. The arrival of Bonaparte restored external tranquillity. But while engaged in bringing to a conclusion the schemes formed for reducing the Mamelukes, he was informed that a powerful Turkish squadron had anchored in the road of Aboukir, and that part of a Turkish army had been landed. To this quarter, therefore, his generals were ordered to concentrate their forces. The Turks had taken the castle of Aboukir by storm; and had intrenched themselves on the neck of land which connects it with the main. The intrenchments were vigorously attacked, and no less vigorously defended; but, after a severe conflict, in which the Turks suffered much, they were defeated, and the greater part of them drowned when endeavouring to escape to their ships which lay at some distance in the road. A party still kept possession of the castle of Aboukir. They were desired to capitulate, but declared themselves ignorant of the mode of capitulating with arms in their hands. A dreadful bombardment commenced, and continued 8 days; during a great part of which time the battering cannon were planted on the countescarp. The fort was reduced to

a heap of ruins when the son of Mustapha, who conducted the expedition, and 2000 men, threw down their arms. The place had been defended with a desperate resolution. Within the fort the French found 300 wounded and 1800 killed. Bonaparte, by this action, in some measure retrieved his fame from the shade which, at Acre, had been thrown upon it. By his vigorous measures he prevented the Turks, under Mustapha, from being joined by the Mamelukes, the Arabs, and the remains of Mourad's army; a junction which, if it had succeeded, might have rendered his tenure of Egypt extremely precarious. But while he was thus endeavouring to establish the French power in Egypt upon a permanent foundation, he received intelligence from France, which presented to his ambitious mind a prize of a nobler nature than the conquest of Egypt. Without disclosing his schemes to any except general Berthier, and his secretary, Bourrienne, he embarked, and on the 24th of August sailed for France, there to act a part still more extraordinary than that which he had acted in Egypt.

When Bonaparte left his army, their affairs, for some time, continued to wear a prosperous aspect; but, as by want of a fleet, they were deprived of even the hope of being reinforced from Europe,—as every engagement, whether prosperous or not, continually diminished their number,—and as disease, even when at rest from every hostile operation, continued perceptibly to thin their ranks,—their situation became daily more alarming, and the force of their enemies was continually gathering new vigour. The Grand Vizier approached from Syria, with a numerous army, and the Turkish fleet, commanded by Sir Sydney Smith, had been powerfully reinforced. Kleber, who since Bonaparte's departure had the chief command, convinced that, though a surrender might be delayed, it could not be avoided, chose rather to commence negotiations while his force was such as to claim honourable terms. The negotiation was conducted on the part of the Turks and British by Sir Sydney Smith, who signed himself minister-plenipotentiary of the king of Great Britain. His authority to act in that capacity was afterwards controverted; and it was resolved by the British ministry to set aside great part of the convention upon which Smith and Kleber had agreed. This conduct of ministers was severely censured by the minority in parliament. It appeared indeed that in concluding such a negotiation, Smith had exceeded both his instructions and his powers; but, had the treaty suited the views of the British court, the validity of his powers might not have been so severely scrutinized. Whatever were the powers of Smith, or whatever truth there might be in the asseverations of the British ministers, the French had ample reason to feel the warmest indignation. They had shown by concluding a treaty with Smith, that they believed him, according to his own assertion, to be possessed of sufficient powers; and, relying on that treaty, they had evacuated every post which they had occupied in Egypt, except Cairo and Alexandria. When they found themselves under the necessity of either commencing a new negotiation, or renewing hostilities in a situation more unfavourable than that in which they formerly stood, such was the resentment of the French that they again had recourse to arms, and attacking the Turkish army, amounting to nearly 40,000 men, defeated them with the loss of 8000. Meantime a formidable expedition was fitted out, under the command of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, in order to expel the French from Egypt. The British forces came within view of Alexandria on the 1st of March, 1801, and on the next day anchored in the road of Aboukir. Till the 7th, the

swell of the sea prevented any of the troops from being landed. This interval had been employed by the French in preparations for their reception. The landing-place was steep, and composed of loose sand which afforded an insecure support to the tread of such as ascended. The French had erected a battery on the summit, on which they had mounted 15 pieces of artillery. On the 8th the landing took place. The troops were constrained to row towards land, for the distance of a mile, exposed to the fire of the batteries, and to incessant volleys from 2,500 men. Notwithstanding this furious opposition, the boats moved steadily onwards, and the soldiers leaping on shore and forming themselves into a line, proceeded immediately to the charge, and drove the French before them for three miles. The remainder of the forces were landed on the 8th and 9th. On the 12th the whole army advanced, and came in sight of the French, who were advantageously posted upon a ridge, having on their right the sea, and the canal of Alexandria on their left. The attack commenced on the 13th, with an attempt to turn the right flank of the French line. The conflict was severe, but terminated in favour of the British. Following their advantage, our soldiers continued their march, and, on the 21st, again engaged the French within four miles of Alexandria. The contest was conducted with uncommon skill, courage, and inveteracy. The troops on both sides were possessed of all the discipline, the intrepidity, and enmity of their respective nations. Every man fought as if the honour of his nation, and the event of the combat depended on his individual bravery. The French returned twice to the charge, and were as often repulsed. Their cavalry charged in column, and were repeatedly mingled with the British infantry. At length, however, those troops, whom Bonaparte had termed invincible, were forced to give way. The loss of the French in this engagement has been stated at 3000. That of the British was much less; but their severest loss was the gallant Abercrombie, who lived not to enjoy the fame which his valour so truly merited. This battle was decisive of the fate of Egypt. Hutchinson succeeded to Abercrombie in the chief command, and immediately passed on to Alexandria, while colonel Spencer took Rosetta. On the 9th of May, 4000 British with as many Turks attacked the French near Ramieh, and were again victorious. Cairo was now the centre of the French strength and influence; to attack them here, therefore, seemed to be the speediest mode of putting an end to the contest. For this purpose the army was put in motion, and about the middle of June arrived before the walls of the capital of Egypt. On the 22d, the French offered to capitulate, and the conditions being settled, Cairo with its dependencies was evacuated, and Menou soon after accepted, for the whole army of Egypt, the same terms which had been granted to those who had occupied Cairo. The French, with their baggage, arms, ammunition, and other property, were, at the expense of the Turks and British, carried to the nearest ports in the Mediterranean belonging to the republic; and, by the treaty of Amiens, Egypt was restored to the Ottoman Porte.

Destruction of the Beys.] No sooner had the Turks regained possession of Egypt, than they determined to consolidate their power by the destruction of the Mamalukes. Accordingly, seven of the most considerable chiefs were invited by the Turkish admiral to repair to Alexandria, to concert with him the best means of restoring them to their power. They were at first received with great marks of distinction; but the capitan pasha having attempted to carry them off in his frigate to Constantinople, an affray ensued in which Osman Bey, the chief, was killed. This outrage

excited the indignation of the British; and, through the interference of general Hutchinson, the other beys, who had been taken prisoners, were set at liberty, and a new agreement entered into by which they abandoned all pretensions to Cairo and Lower Egypt. The fugitive beys, retreating to Upper Egypt, at last fixed themselves at Dongola, the capital of Nubia, and from this period their power may be considered as having been annihilated.

Second British Campaign.] Nothing further of importance occurs in the history of Egypt till 1807. At this period the French and Russians were carrying on an active warfare in Poland; and, in order to distract the measures, and divide the forces of Russia, the French government exerted its influence, both by threats and promises, to induce the Turks to take up arms against that power. The Turks, thinking perhaps the present a favourable opportunity of regaining from Russia the territories which they had lost in former wars, complied with the desire of France: and thus Great Britain, as the ally of Russia, became involved in the war. In order, therefore, to create a diversion in favour of Russia, by drawing the attention of the Turks to the defence of their own territories, an expedition of about 5000 British troops, under the command of major-general Fraser, was despatched from Sicily, in order to take possession of Alexandria. A division of the troops being landed on the 17th of March, general Fraser proceeded to attack the place; and, after a few trifling skirmishes, the inhabitants compelled the governor to capitulate. The British general, however, soon found himself involved in very serious difficulties: for, as the city of Alexandria drew all its supply of provisions from the interior, by the canal of Alexandria, which communicates with the Nile,—and as the two garrisons of Rosetta and Ramanieh completely commanded the navigation of that canal,—it was found impossible to maintain Alexandria without gaining possession of both these places. To effect this purpose, a detachment of troops, under the command of major-general Wanshope and brigadier-general Meade, proceeded against Rosetta; and arriving before that place, immediately dashed into the town, without having previously ascertained either the numbers or situation of the enemy, when they were so roughly handled from the windows and flat roofs of the houses, without being able so much as to see their adversaries, that they were obliged to retire with the loss of nearly 500 killed and wounded; general Wanshope being among the former, and general Meade among the latter. A second attempt was made with about 2,500 men, under the command of the honourable brigadier-general Stewart and colonel Oswald, but, owing to a great reinforcement of the enemy being sent down the Nile from Cairo, our troops were again repulsed with great loss; in consequence of which, general Fraser, finding his army too much reduced to enable him to attempt any farther operations, and the city and troops exposed to a famine, thought proper to enter into a capitulation for evacuating the place, by which the prisoners on both sides were restored. The internal state of Egypt has undergone an important revolution since the period of the above transactions—a revolution effected by the extraordinary talents and energies of its present viceroy.

Mehemed Ali.] Mehemed or Mahommed Ali Paasha was born at Cavalla, a town of ancient Macedonia, not far from the shores of the Grecian archipelago, in the year 1767. Ibrahim Aga, his father, was at the head of the police in that place. The son was fond of a military life; though, by way of speculation, he embarked in the more lucrative trade of

tobacco. At the time of the French expedition, he crossed over to Egypt with the contingent ordered from his district, and became an officer in the Turkish army, which, under the auspices of the English, defeated the plans of their adversaries. He made himself beloved on every occasion, and his activity and dauntless bravery placed him at the head of every enterprise which was undertaken. He commanded the Albanese, his own countrymen—a body of men always distinguished beyond any other by its daring and recklessness, and which powerfully seconded his plans, whilst he himself suffered no qualms of conscience to deter him, when he could, from administering to their necessities. In the first instance, his plans appear to have had no object beyond the upholding of his sway in this corps; and nothing but the ease with which he saw it was possible to advance his fortunes, amidst the confusion of the moment, prompted him to turn it to his individual account. Force and fraud were alike the stepping-stones to the attainment of his ends. By these means he has not only brought the whole of Egypt, Nubia, and Dongola, under his dominion, but the greater part of these countries has become his personal property and possession, as he has gradually taken the land itself in payment from such proprietors as could not discharge their taxes; and, by narrowing their means of subsistence, has forced them to fertilise lands which lay waste, though susceptible of cultivation, taking care that they should hold the new soil under leases from himself. Mehemet Ali has afforded numerous proofs of pecuniary disinterestedness. His voluntary remittances to Constantinople—even since the unfortunate termination of the sultan's struggle with the czar—are more than twice as much as Egypt ever sent before, and his special largesses exceed even these. His indefatigable mind is constantly intent upon strengthening his dominion by enlarging its sphere; and growing discontent, or the mere appearance of it, is instantly stifled in its birth. As lord of Egypt, he is the self-created successor of Kurchid Pasha, from the year 1804; but he was not confirmed by the feeble government of Constantinople, which always leans to the side of the stronger, until the aid of his alliance had placed Cairo in his grasp. Since he has been sovereign and pasha of Egypt, he has studiously avoided even the appearance of being opposed to the Turkish government; though he has artfully contrived to render the military service he owed to it subservient to the execution of his own designs. His calculating commercial spirit is the peculiar quality in his character, which has given him political eminence, has brought the resources of Egypt into play, and can never quit him whilst its fruits incite him to fresh efforts. It is of indispensable necessity towards the power and prosperity of Egypt, at a time when the interior of Africa is so scantily cultivated, that it should have a quick and regular demand for its rich produce in the west of Europe. An interruption to its commerce might give a very different aspect to the state of Egypt, as well as to its ruler's views and conduct. Mehemet Ali has notoriously avoided every act that could imply a disposition to befriend the Christian religion. In the year 1823 he supplied every Egyptian village, which was destitute of a place of public worship, with mosques erected at his own expense. Mehemet has enjoyed no advantages from education; he speaks no western languages besides Turkish, Albanian, and Arabic; he learned to read and write late in life, but seldom makes use of those acquirements. Endued with a keen sense of what is best and most expedient, he has at all times lent a ready ear to extensive designs; and being withheld by no scruples of conscience, he has been enabled to bring them to a successful termination. His love

for science is displayed by the patronage he confers on its disciples, and proceeds from his sense of usefulness; though it is frequently the effect of his admiration for what is out of the common course. His attachment to Europeans is measured by the extent of their intellects and attainments; the utility of which he has learned to appreciate more sensibly of late than in earlier years. What he begins, he wishes to see completed; and the greater the difficulties he has to contend with, the bolder and more efficient are the means he adopts, so long as there exists the slightest glimmering of a hopeful result. With Mehemed Ali a new epoch has dawned upon the East; toleration and science promise to travel once more hand in hand with Islamism; and though the means may merit reprobation, yet has a result ensued, which has raised an enduring monument to the memory of its instruments. Mehemed Ali had three sons, Ibrahim, Tussun, and Ismael, and three daughters, two of whom are married. Tussun Pasha died of the plague in Egypt at the close of 1816, after long conducting the campaign against the Wechabites. Ismael Pasha was assassinated during a revolution in Sennar in 1822. Ibrahim Pasha has subsequently commanded in the Morea.

Discovery of Hieroglyphical Interpretation.] We cannot conclude our historical sketch of this extraordinary country without adverting to one of the most extraordinary and interesting discoveries of modern times,—that of the interpretation of the hieroglyphical writing of the ancient Egyptians,—“the raising to life a language that has lain dead in the tombs and temples of Egypt for thousands of years.”

“Our knowledge of hieroglyphics amounted literally to nothing,” says the Marquis Spineto, in his ‘*Lectures on the Elements of hieroglyphics and Egyptian antiquities*,’ when the French government sent an expedition into Egypt, most liberally provided with a select body of antiquarians and architects, surveyors, naturalists, and draughtsmen, to discover, copy, and carry away all that was fitted to explain the scientific and literary knowledge of that country. On their return they published a splendid account of their labours, in which all the perfection and elegance which can possibly belong to printing and engraving have been exhibited, and nothing can exceed the fidelity and exactness with which the several MSS. and inscriptions have been represented.

“Amidst the several monuments which they discovered in digging for the foundation of fort St. Julien near Rosetta, they found a huge broken stone of a black colour, which was destined to produce a material revolution in our knowledge of hieroglyphics, and dissipate the dark mist which had hitherto enveloped this important department of antiquity. This stone, which, by the gallantry of our army, now decorates the British Museum, contains an inscription, in three several languages, or sets of characters—one in Greek, another in hieroglyphics, and the third in a sort of running hand, called *enchorial* characters, that is, the common characters of the country. This stone is mutilated in several places. The top part of the hieroglyphical inscription is altogether wanting. The beginning of the second, and the end of the third are also mutilated. But enough was left to give us a proper idea of its purport and contents.

“It was soon ascertained that this stone was too valuable a monument to be laid aside; and our Antiquarian Society, fully aware of its importance, had it immediately engraved, and generally circulated. The precious relic soon attracted the attention of the greatest scholars of Europe, of a Persson and a Heyne, in regard to the Greek; and of M. Silvestre de Sacy, Akerblad, Dr Young, and Champollion, in regard to the hieroglyphical, and the enchorial, or demotic.

“As it was natural to suppose, the intermedial text of this inscription, which in the Greek is called *enchorialis grammata*, or letters of the country, was, after the Greek, that which attracted the attention of scholars, and consequently the first that furnished any precise notions concerning the system adopted by the Egyptians in writing; because the hieroglyphics presented greater difficulties, and the Greek was sufficiently understood, both in England and abroad, to render this part at least of the investigation comparatively insignificant.

“M. Silvestre de Sacy seems to have been the first to discover, in the demotic or enchorial text, the groups which represented different proper names, such as Ptolemy, and Alexander, and find out that the different signs in these groups were letters.

“Mr Akerblad, a Danish gentleman, and the Swedish resident at Rome, went a little further. He recognised and separated most of these alphabetical elements from the proper names, but deduced his conclusions from the preamble of the decree, which consists in a great measure of foreign proper names; and believing that this part of the inscription was throughout alphabetical, he never suspected the suppression of the intermediate vowels, according to the custom of most of the Orientals, and

even of the Hebrews, and thought that every word was spelt most fully and accurately, without any omission whatever. For this reason, when Mr Akerblad applied his alphabet to decipher the rest of the inscription, he could make nothing of it, especially as throughout the inscription there is no intermediate space left between two words; but the letters, or characters, follow one another as closely as if they made one single word; a practice which prevails also in all the MSS. The first important step, however, was made; an alphabet, or something like an alphabet, had been published: and it had been ascertained, that if not always, at least occasionally, the Egyptians employed hieroglyphics as letters, or at least had a kind of alphabet, the letters of which were not much dissimilar from those of the Hebrews. But still the real translation of the demotic, or enchorial text of the Rosetta stone was wanting.

"It might have been expected, after the partial success obtained by Mr Akerblad, that the antiquaries, the chronologists, and the scholars of all nations would have united heart and hand in a common effort to conquer all the difficulties which still presented themselves, to get at the solution of the grand problem, which was still to be solved concerning the antiquities of Egypt. But it seems that for some time the labours of Akerblad remained, if not unnoticed, at least without producing the effect which might have been expected, till the year 1814, when Dr Young published, in the *Archæologia*, an improvement on the alphabet of Akerblad, and a translation of the Egyptian inscription placed by the side of the Greek, but distinguishing the contents of the different lines with as much precision as his materials had enabled him to obtain. . . .

"The method pursued by our learned men in this herculean task of deciphering the Rosetta stone may serve to give you a proper idea of the infinite labour to which they have been obliged to submit; a labour which at first seemed calculated to deter the most indefatigable scholar. Figure to yourself, for a moment, the fashion introduced of writing the English language with the omission of most of its vowels, and then suppose our alphabet to be entirely lost or forgotten, a new mode of writing introduced, letters totally different from those we use, and then conceive what our labour would be, if, after the lapse of 1500 years, when the English language, by the operation of age, and the intercourse with foreigners, was much altered from what it now is, we should be required, by the help of a Greek translation, to decipher a bill of parliament written in this old, forgotten, and persecuted alphabet, in every word of which we should find, and even this not always, the regular number of consonants, but most of the vowels left out. And yet this is precisely what our learned antiquarians have been obliged to do. The Egyptians, like most of the Orientals, left out many of their vowels in writing. The enchorial, or demotic alphabet, which they used, has been laid aside since the second or third century of our era. From that time to this, that is nearly 1600 years, the Coptic alphabet has been used; and yet in this Coptic language, and in these very enchorial or demotic characters, was engraved on the Rosetta stone, the inscription which they have deciphered. The method, therefore, followed by those learned men, in so arduous an undertaking, deserves to be noticed. . . .

"From the concluding line of the Greek inscription, it was natural to suppose that the three inscriptions engraved on this stone were translated from the same original; and though it was impossible to ascertain which of them was the original, yet it seemed evident that two, at least, were but a translation of the third. As the demotic characters showed something like the shape of letters, it was shrewdly suspected that they might have been used as an alphabet. By comparing, therefore, its different parts with each other, and with the Greek, it was observed that the two groups in the fourth and seventeenth lines of the Greek inscription, in which, *Alexander* and *Alexandria* occur, corresponded with two other groups in the second and tenth line of the demotic inscription. These two groups, therefore, were considered as representing these two names, and thus not less than seven characters, or letters, were ascertained.

"Again it was observed that a small group of characters occur very often in almost every line. At first it was supposed that this group was either a termination, or some very common particle; and after more words had been identified, it was found to mean the conjunction *and*.

"It was then observed, that the next remarkable collection of characters was repeated twenty-nine or thirty times in the enchorial inscription; and nothing was found to occur so often in the Greek, except the word *king*, which, with its compounds, is repeated about thirty-seven times.

"A fourth assemblage of characters was found fourteen times in the enchorial inscription, agreeing sufficiently well in frequency with the name of *Ptolemy*, which occurs eleven times in Greek, and generally in passages corresponding to those of the enchorial text, in their relative situation; and by a similar comparison the name of *Egypt* was also identified. . . .

"Having thus obtained a sufficient number of common points of subdivision, the next step was to write the Greek text over the enchorial, in such a manner that the passages ascertained should coincide as nearly as possible: taking, however, a proper care to observe, that the lines of the demotic, or enchorial inscription, are written from right to left, while those of the Greek run in a contrary direction, from left to right. At first sight this difficulty seemed very great; but it was conquered by proper attention and practice; because, after some trouble, the division of the several words and phrases plainly indicated the direction in which they were to be read. Thus it was obvious that the intermediate parts of each inscription stood then very near to the corresponding passages of the other.

"By means of this process, Mr Akerblad, M. De Sacy, and Dr Young, succeeded in deciphering the inscription engraved on the Rosetta stone, in the enchorial or common characters of Egypt; and thus they obtained a sort of alphabet which might aid them in future researches. . . .

" Things remained in this state for some time, when a curious circumstance shewed a demonstration, that the demotic alphabet of Aburhid, De Grey, and Dr Young, was the true alphabet employed by the old Egyptians. (This was nothing else than the discovery of a second stone formerly existing at Menout, containing an inscription both in demotic and Greek characters. This stone belonged to M. Drovetti, the French consul at Alexandria; and Dr Young, who saw it at Lagnora, and very properly considered it as a very important document, the only supplement, in fact, to the pillar of Rosetta then in existence, did all he could to obtain, though in vain, an impression of it. But what the learned doctor could not get from the illiberal jealousy of M. Drovetti, he got by chance. On his way home, he saw M. Champollion at Paris, who copied for him some parts of a very important papyrus, written in clear enchorial characters; and very soon after, Mr Grey, on his return from Egypt, left with him a box containing several fine specimens of writing and drawing on papyrus, which Mr Grey had purchased from an Arab at Thebes, chiefly in hieroglyphics, amongst which were two particularly deserving attention, inasmuch as they contained some Greek characters, in a pretty legible hand.

" In examining one of these manuscripts, Dr Young, to his great astonishment and delight, found that it began with these words, ' A copy of an Egyptian writing; ' and on proceeding with his examination, it turned out to be a correct translation of the very MS. which M. Champollion had transcribed for him; and both of them, in reality, were nothing less than the copy of the inscription engraved on the stone discovered at Menout, belonging to M. Drovetti, which Dr Young had seen at Lagnora.

" The result derived from this second comparison of the Egyptian with the Greek characters, was the identification of more than thirty proper names, and, consequently, of several new characters, which were added to the enchorial or demotic alphabet.

" In hieroglyphics, the success of Dr Young was neither so certain, nor so extensive [as in his researches into the enchorial or demotic characters]; yet the merit alone of having first thought of ascertaining, by fact, the opinion of Zoega and Warburton, to read hieroglyphics, as letters, and actually spell the names of Berenice and Ptolemy, is, after all, so great, as to counterbalance every possible mistake; for it was upon this discovery that M. Champollion afterwards engrafted his system, and was enabled to carry his researches into Egyptian antiquities, and Egyptian hieroglyphics, to the truly astonishing degree which he has done.

" Besides these things already enumerated, Dr Young also discovered the meaning, and interpreted the signification of seventy-seven more simple characters, and groups consisting of several characters, together with the feminine termination invariably attached to names of females, whether goddesses, private individuals, or princesses, which are the oval and the half circle, a termination indicating the female sex; the whole of which he published in the fourth volume of the Supplement to the Encyclopedia Britannica.

" It is true, that in these important discoveries, Dr Young seemed to give the meaning of these hieroglyphical groups taken altogether, without assigning a proper value to each of the characters; nor did he mark the alphabet of hieroglyphics in the same way as he had done that of the enchorial or demotic; but still it was he who made the first important step; for it was Dr Young who first ascertained that many simple objects were represented by pictures, that is, by their actual delineations; that many other objects were used in a figurative sense only; while a great number of the symbols could be considered as pictures of no existing objects whatever.

" Again, it was Dr Young who first found out the marks or signs for numbers, that two objects were denoted by the repetition of the same character; that an indefinite plurality was represented by three characters of the same kind following each other; that definite numbers were expressed by upright strokes for units; and arches, either round or angular for tens.

" Again, it seems that the same gentleman first discovered the real expression, or hieroglyphic characters, employed to express several letters, such N. M. P. T. F. as they are marked in the names of Berenice and Ptolemy. They may be, and often are, expressed by other signs besides those marked by Dr Young: yet it was a great matter, when no one ever dreamed of a hieroglyphical alphabet, to discover a few characters for some of the letters.

" Dr Young also found out, or rather verified what had already been discovered by Zoega, in his work, *De Orig. et usu Obeliscorum*, that all proper names were included in a border, a kind of oval ring, or a frame, which the French call *cartouche*. In this assertion, Dr Young went rather too far; because the further discoveries made by M. Champollion have proved, that this ring or oval, is not a graphical sign, but a mark of political distinction, as it is engraved only round the names of kings and queens, and never round the names of private individuals.

" Again, Dr Young first asserted, that all hieroglyphic inscriptions were read from right to left, as the objects naturally follow each other. This last principle, however, admits of too many exceptions to be received as a rule. For the fact is, as M. Champollion has proved, that the characters are sometimes disposed perpendicularly, and sometimes horizontally, and sometimes both ways. This takes place who never two, three, or four characters, of different dimensions, happen to meet. Thus, for instance, the oval contains the name of Berenice, and you find the box, which is B, over the long oval which is R; then the undulating line, which is N, over two characters; the two feathers, which stand for E, and a kind of bridge, which is a K; and lastly, the bi-d by itself, which is S. Then follow the semi-circle and the egg, which, as I have already stated, are simple marks of the feminine gender, and, therefore, attached to all names of females.

"The general rule, therefore, found out of Champollion, is to begin reading an inscription, whether written perpendicularly or horizontally, from the side to which the heads of the animals are turned; or if, in the inscription, there be no animals, from the side to which are turned the angles, or circles found in the text. This rule, says M. Champollion, admits of no exception but one, and that is a hieroglyphic MS., in which the characters are to be read from left to right, though the heads of the animals look towards the right hand."—P. 54—75.

CHAP. II.—PHYSICAL FEATURES.—THE NILE.—CANALS.

THE general aspect of Egypt is highly uniform and monotonous. Upper Egypt, from Syene to Kenneh, appears to be a long narrow valley, bounded on both sides by hills, between which, but generally nearest those on the eastern side, flows the Nile. At Cairo, the mountains separate, and verge to a greater distance from each other, till they, in some measure, enclose Lower Egypt. This part of the country is low and level; being, for the most part, one continued plain, without anything that can be called an eminence,—without even a stone. All this space is capable of being overflowed by the waters of the annual inundation.

The following general description of the country is given by Malte Brun: "From Syene, as far as the strait called *Djebel Silsil*, a distance of about forty miles, the river occupies the middle of the valley, having very little arable land on its banks; but there are some islands, which, from their low level, easily admit of irrigation. Beyond the mouth of the *Djebel Silsil*, the Nile runs along the right side of the valley, which, in several places, has the appearance of a steep line of rocks cut into peaks; while the ridge of hills on the left side is always accessible by a slope of various degrees of steepness. These western mountains begin near Siout, and extend southward to Fayoum, diverging gradually to the west; so that between them and the cultivated valley, there is a desert space, gradually becoming wider, and bordered in several places, on the valley-side, by a line of sandy downs lying nearly north and south. The mountains which confine the upper part of the basin, are intersected by defiles, leading, on the one side, to the Red Sea, and on the other, to the Oases. These narrow passes might be habitable, since the winter-rains maintain for a time a degree of vegetation, and form springs, which the Arabs use for themselves and their flocks. The stripe of desert land which generally extends along each side of the valley, parallel to the course of the Nile, (and which must not be confounded with the ocean of barren sand which lies on each side of Egypt,) now contains two very distinct kinds of land. The one, immediately at the bottom of the mountains, consists of sand and round pebbles; the other, composed of light drifting sand, covers an extent of ground formerly sterile. The surface on both sides declines from the margin of the river to the foot of the hills,—a circumstance to be remarked also on the banks of the Mississippi, the Po, part of the Borysthenes, and some other rivers. Near Beni-Suef, the valley, already much widened on the west, has on that side an opening, through which is obtained a view of the fertile plains of Fayoum. These plains are, properly speaking, a sort of table-land, separated from the mountains on the north and west by a wide valley, a part of which, being always laid under water, forms what the inhabitants call *Birket-el-Karoon*.

"Near Cairo, the mountains diverge on both sides; the one ridge, under the name of *Djebel-el-Nairon*, running in a north-westerly direction to the Mediterranean,—the other, called *Djebel-el-Attaka*, running due east to Suez. In front of these chains, extends a vast plain composed of sands covered with the mud of the Nile. At the place called *Bahr-el-Bakara*,

the river divides into two branches, the one flowing to Rosetta, the other to Damietta, and containing between them the present Delta. This triangular piece of insulated land was in former times much larger: being bounded, on the east, by the Pelusian branch, which is now choked up with sand, or converted into marshy pools. On the west, it was bounded by the Canopic branch, which is now partly confounded with the canal of Alexandria, and partly lost in Lake Etko. The correspondence of the level of the surface to that of the present Delta, and its depression as compared with the level of the adjoining desert, together with its greater verdure and fertility, still mark the limits of the ancient Delta; although irregular encroachments are made by shifting banks of drifting sand, which are on the increase."

Geological Structure.] For a more particular description of the geological structure and character of this wonderful country, we shall avail ourselves of a very able article in the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana*. "The mountains which form the natural boundaries of the Egyptian valley, are, on many accounts, highly deserving of attention. From them, under the Pharaohs, the Ptolemies, and the Antonines, were drawn the materials, not only of the stupendous monuments which still make Egypt a land of wonders, but also for many of the public buildings in Italy, the remains of which attest the genius of the Roman artists, and the munificence of the emperors. About the 24th degree of N. latitude, a granitic chain closes in on each side of the river, so as to wear the appearance of having been rent by the stream, which forces its way through fragments of rocks. Hence, the almost innumerable islands to the north of Philæ, as far as Aswan (Assouan). The cataracts a little to the south of that town, are nothing more than rapids, which might arise from a contraction of the bed of the stream; there is, however, most probably, in that tract of the country, a considerable change in the level of the soil. The bold, but wild and gloomy precipices which here overhang the stream, as well as the roar of its waters rushing through a multitude of channels, (for, even when the inundation is at its height, there are twenty large islands in the midst of the river,) were well-calculated to work upon the imagination of the early inhabitants; and their belief that Osiris remained buried in those abysses as long as the stream was confined within its banks, but rose from the grave, to scatter his blessings over the land, as soon as the accumulated waters were poured forth on all sides, was fostered, if not created, by the physical peculiarities of this overawing though desolate region. The granite or southern district extends from Philæ to Aswan, (in lat. $24^{\circ} 8' 6''$ N.; long. $33^{\circ} 4'$ E.) and is formed for the most part, by rocks of Syenite or Oriental granite, in which the quarries may yet be seen from which the ancients drew the stupendous masses required for their colossal statues and obelisks. Between Aswan and Eena (in lat. $25^{\circ} 19' 39''$ N.) is the sandstone, or middle district, which supplied slabs for most of the temples; and beyond it, the northern or calcareous district stretches to the southern angle of the Delta. This last chain of hills furnished not only the solid part of the pyramids, but materials also for many public buildings long since destroyed, because they proved excellent stores of lime and stone for the Arabs and other barbarians by whom Egypt has been desolated for so many centuries. The steep, perpendicular cliffs of this calcareous rock give a monotonous and unpicturesque aspect to this part of Egypt; while the boldness and grotesque forms of the mountains in the south, offer new points of view in continual succession, even when the inundation is at its greatest height.

" On each side of the river below Aswan (Syene), steep, abrupt sandstone cliffs, presenting a continued line of ancient quarries, hem in the stream; and the valley, which opens gradually, closes again at the distance of 12 leagues (about 36 geographical miles), where it is reduced to one-fourth of its former width, and lofty walls of rock on each side barely leave a passage for the water. This is now called *Jebel-el-Silsilah*, (Mountain of the Chain); and from its quarries, the materials used in the temples at Thebes were drawn. Below these narrows, the valley gradually widens, but the eastern bank continues to present one uninterrupted perpendicular wall, while, on the west, there is a gradual, and generally an easy ascent, to the desert. Another contraction of the valley occurs about 56 geographical miles lower down, ten miles to the north of Eana, where the rock does not leave even a footpath near the river, and the traveller by land must make a considerable circuit in order to reach the place where the hills for the third time recede. This passage, called *Jebel-ain* (the two hills), leads to the plains of Ermont and Thebes (in lat. $25^{\circ} 44' N.$); for here, the land on each side of the river spreads out into so wide a level as really to form a plain in comparison with the rugged banks of the stream higher up. It is at this place that the sandstone terminates, and the freestone begins. The banks are no longer straight and parallel, but diverge in various directions, forming many bays and creeks; while the country, rising on each side almost imperceptibly towards the hills, presents a nearly even surface of cultivable soil about two leagues in width. This, which is the first level of any extent below the cataracts, is the site of the most ancient and celebrated capital of Egypt, Thebes,—the ruins of which cover a large proportion of the valley. It is remarkable, that the distance from Thebes to the cataracts, one extremity of the country, is exactly the same as that between Memphis, the subsequent capital, and the sea, the other extremity; namely, 40 leagues, or 120 geographical miles. The calcareous chain continues from this point, on each side of the valley, to the head of the Delta, where the hills open to the east and west, uniting with the Libyan chain on one side, and bending towards the mountains of Arabia Petrea on the other. This chain, though generally calcareous, is occasionally, especially near the desert, broken by isolated rocks of sandstone.

" At Denderah (Tentyris), 12 leagues N. of Thebes, the Nile, again hemmed in by the hills, turns nearly at right angles, and runs directly from east to west as far as the site of Abydos (*Medfun* or *El Birba*), where it resumes its northerly direction, and, entering another spacious and fertile valley, passes by Jirjeh and Osyut (or Siout). Near the latter place, the Libyan chain begins to bend towards the west; and the descent from the desert becomes so gradual, that the country is on that side much exposed to clouds of sand, by which it would have been overwhelmed long since, but for the canal called *Bahr Yusuf* (Joseph's River), which secures the irrigation of the land between itself and the Nile, and thus prevents the further encroachment of the desert. Here, the *Said*, or upper division of Egypt terminates, and the *Wustani*, or middle region, extending as far as the fork of the Delta, commences. The more the valley of the Nile gains in width, and the western mountains lose in height, the greater is the danger from its proximity to the Libyan desert. That remarkable portion of Africa (*El Sahara*) is, for the most part, covered with sand or very fine gravel, the minuter particles of which are, at certain seasons, carried by tempestuous gales over a great extent of country. It is manifest, that, the less the ground is cultivated, the fewer the trees and shrubs it bears;

and the more its irrigation is neglected, the more rapidly will the sand from the desert encroach on the plains or valleys near the river. The cultivable tracts, therefore, in the Middle and Lower Egypt, have long been daily decreasing; and were it not for the canal just mentioned, few spots uncovered by sand would have remained on the western bank of the Nile.

"Beyond Beni-Suweif (in lat. $29^{\circ} 9' 22''$ N.), the Libyan chain of hills again closes in towards the N.E., and forms the northern boundary of the large basin between *Derat-el-Sherif* and *Atfih*; but, at *El Ilahun*, to the N.W. of the former it is broken by one of the many transverse valleys, and thus opens a passage into the province of Fayyum (or Fayoum). Beyond that vale, which is merely a large bay or sinuosity in the border of these mountains, they approach the river with a steeper declivity, and have a nearly level summit overlooking the country below. This table-land between the Nile and Fayyum, was chosen for the site of the pyramids. On its north-western side, the hills shelve off in that direction, and terminate in the cliffs and promontories which mark the coast of ancient Cyrenaica. The eastern or Arabian chain has generally more transverse breaks and ravines, is more lofty and rugged, and comes closer to the river, than the hills on the opposite side. The northern part of it is called *El Mokattam* (the hewn), probably from the quarries formed in its sides, and is connected by several inferior ranges with the mountains of Arabia Petraea.

"Of the transverse valleys leading to the Red Sea, the best known are, the Valley of Cosseir, and that of the Wanderings of the Children of Israel: the former is the most frequented road between the Upper Egypt and the sea; and the latter, the route probably followed by the Israelites on their return to the promised land. But, besides these, there are five or six others at present known, and probably several unexplored. Some were much frequented anciently, which are now rarely, if ever visited; such have been the ruinous consequences of misgovernment, by which the commerce of Egypt has dwindled to almost nothing. Towns upon the Red Sea, once flourishing emporiums, have ceased to exist; and Berenice, anciently celebrated for its wealth and commerce, is now so completely forgotten, that even the road to it was unknown till traced a few years ago by MM. Cailliaud and Belzoni. The narrow ravines between the hills on the western side were, till very lately, equally unknown, though the Oases, and the roads leading to them, were described by the Greeks and Arabs. Two lead from Jirjeh and Esna into the Great Oasis (*El Wah-el-kharijeh*), and one from Fayyum into the smaller (*El Wah-el-dakhileh*). On the western side of the Delta, the direction of the valleys is nearly from S.E. to N.W.; and *Siyah* or *Shantariyyeh*, the Oasis of Ammon, is connected with Egypt by branches which diverge more towards the west, from the *Bahr Bilama* (Waterless Sea), i. e. the celebrated desert called *Scete*, or the Valley of Natron."

The Delta.] The most remarkable part of Lower Egypt, is the Delta, which is of a triangular form—like the Greek letter whose name it bears—and is insulated by the dividing branches of the Nile. It is also called *Bahari*, or 'the Maritime country;' and it is supposed that it contains 16,000 square miles capable of cultivation. The Delta, and the country to the E. and W. of the Delta, are every where intersected by canals for the purpose of conveying the waters of the inundation to such land as could not otherwise receive their benefit. The numerous villages and pigeon-houses interspersed with palms,—the tall minarets and gardens of orange and banana-trees which abound in the Delta and along each bank of the Nile,—

added to the richness of the soil, which produces the finest crops of grain almost without the labour of culture,—afford an enchanting prospect to the eye, especially when contrasted with the Libyan sands of Alexandria. The summit of the Delta, where the river divides itself into its two great branches, is called *Batu-el-Bahara*, that is ‘the stomach of the cow.’ The prospect here, says M. Champollion “is magnificent, and the breadth of the Nile enormous. The pyramids tower in the west above a forest of palm-trees,—while a multitude of boats and vessels cross each other on the water in every direction. In the east, the picturesque village of Scho-raleh reveals itself in the direction of Heliopolis;—and the back of the picture is occupied by Mount Mokattam, whose summit is crowned by the citadel of Cairo, and its base concealed by the numberless minarets of that great capital.” The line of coast which bounds the Delta on the N., and forms the base of the triangle, is about 150 miles in length. The shore is flat, and the navigation is considered dangerous. To the W. of Alexandria it is exposed to N. and N.W. winds a great part of the year; but the coast itself is protected by calcareous cliffs. On the E. of Aboukir numerous sand-banks present formidable obstacles to the mariner, particularly at the mouth of the Rosetta arm of the Nile. The entrance to the river at Damietta is likewise dangerous.

The Nile.] No river in the world has been more famed than the Nile. It would be wrong, however, to imagine that this celebrity has originated in any remarkable quality of the river itself, or in the appearance of the country through which it flows. Its fame has, in a great degree, been owing to other causes. It was the greatest river with which the ancients were well acquainted; it flows through Egypt,—a country from which Europe has derived the rudiments of almost every art; it annually overflows its banks,—a circumstance which appeared long unaccountable; and its source, in spite of the researches of human curiosity, was long unknown to the civilized world, and, according to some, is still unknown. To the imagination of the modern, the Nile is not an object of such magnificence as it must have appeared to the ancient geographers. In length of course, and still more in the breadth and depth of its waters, it dwindles into an inconsiderable stream before the Plata, the Amazon, or even the Mississippi. Its length—in which it approaches nearer these rivers than in breadth or depth—is about 2,000 miles; but, as it receives but few collateral branches, and none from the mouth of the Tacazze to the Delta—a distance of nearly 1350 nautical miles—its breadth is seldom, if ever, more than one-third of a mile, and its average depth is only about 12 feet. This, however, must be understood as relating to its situation when confined within its banks: during an inundation, it lays every level spot upon its banks under water. The ancients were not well acquainted with any other river which annually inundated the country around it. This circumstance, therefore, must have attracted no inconsiderable share of their attention. To moderns, the overflowing of the Nile is no longer a matter of surprise; nor is the Nile in this respect singular. Every river which has its source within the tropics annually overflows its banks; and the cause is the same in all. The incessant torrents of rain which attend the vertical sun, and which constitute the winter of tropical regions, swell every river beyond its ordinary bounds, and lay the level country under water. This is found to be case with the Plata and the Amazon, and with every considerable stream whose source is not far removed from the equator. The Nile rises within the tropics, and consequently inundates yearly the neighbouring

countries. The inundation commences in the summer-solstice generally about the 19th of June, and subsides in October; but its rise and fall happens earlier or later by fifteen days or sometimes even a month; and, during all that time, from the particles of earth and sand brought by the current from the upper country, the colour of the water is a dirty red, preceded for a few days by a green tint. The overflowing of tropical rivers is the chief cause of the fertility of the regions upon their banks, which is owing to the strata of mud which they deposit. To the overflowing of the Nile, therefore, Egypt owes its agricultural prosperity. The proper rise of the waters is to the inhabitants an affair the most important. A few feet less than the ordinary height, would prevent the spreading of the waters to a sufficient distance; a few feet more than the usual quantity would prevent the water from draining off in the proper season for sowing, and spread devastation throughout the country, as in the years 1818 and 1829—and, in either case, a famine and perhaps an extensive loss of lives would be the consequence. When the Nile has attained the proper height, and when it seems not to rise too far, Egypt is the scene of festivity and congratulation; the inhabitants are assured of abundance, and anticipate with joy the approaching harvest.¹¹

The ancients were ignorant of the sources of this river, which attracted so much of their attention; and the moderns remained long unacquainted with them, though it now appears that the sources of one of its principal branches—if not of the Nile itself—was known to Europeans long before they credited the fact. Bruce, it is true—who undertook a search which was believed to have eluded every former adventurer—assures us that he was the first of Europeans who saw the fountains from which the Nile originates; and, so anxious was he to secure this honour to himself, that he minutely examines the accounts of such travellers as pretend to have visited them before him, and his decision, as was to be expected, is in his own favour. Bruce had undertaken a long and dangerous journey for this express purpose; and it would have been not a little mortifying to have found, at its completion, that his design had not only been anticipated but completely effected by others; it was only natural to attempt the appropri-

¹¹ To ascertain the rise of the water, and to determine the time when the sluices of these numerous canals are to be opened which conduct moisture to the distant parts of the country, an instrument has been erected, denominated the *Nilometer*. The utility of such an instrument must have been early evident, and the invention has been attributed to very remote ages. The best account of the *Nilometer* at present standing is given by Bruce: "On the point of the island Rhode, (says he) between Geeza and Cairo, near the middle of the river, is a round tower inclosing a neat well or cistern, lined with marble. The bottom of this well is on the same level with the bottom of the Nile, which has free access to it through a large opening like an embrasure. In the middle of the well rises a thin column of eight faces of blue and white marble; of which the foot is on the same plane with the bottom of the river. This pillar is divided into 80 peaks of 22 inches each. Of these peaks the two lowermost are left, without any division, to stand for the quantity of sludge which the water deposits there. Two peaks are then divided on the right hand, into 24 digits each; then on the left, four peaks are divided into 24 digits; then on the right four; and on the left another four: again, four on the right, which completes the number of 18 peaks from the first division marked on the pillar, each peak being 22 inches. Thus the whole, marked and unmarked, amounts to something more than 36 feet English. When the river begins to rise, its height is proclaimed from time to time. The chief use of the *Nilometer* is to determine the time for opening the canals, by which the water is to be conveyed to distant places: but it has also been used as a rule of taxation. The tax upon the produce of the land being always proportioned to the rise of the water upon the *Nilometer*. The analysis of the mud of the Nile gives nearly one-half of argillaceous earth and about one-fourth of carbonate of lime: the remainder consisting of water, oxide of iron, and carbonate of magnesia. This mud is formed into excellent bricks and vessels of diverse-forms. The salubrity of the water of the Nile is pretty generally acknowledged."

tion of that fame for which he had undergone so much fatigue and encountered so many dangers. But Bruce's examination of Kircher's account of the sources of the Nile, plainly evinces to the unprejudiced, that the latter either visited these sources himself, or received his information from such as had visited them. What were considered the sources of the Blue River, by some regarded as the head or main branch of the Nile, were found and described by two Jesuits, Paez and Tellez, two centuries before the pretended discovery of Bruce. A few differences and inaccuracies detected by Bruce in the account, serve rather to confirm than invalidate the truth of this early visit. Still, we must confess that Bruce met not that applause which he expected, and which his labours most certainly deserved; the reception of his narrative, even by his own countrymen, can scarcely be accounted generous. It was first doubted whether he had really ever seen the head of the river which he described as the chief branch of the Nile; and when this could no longer be insinuated, it was immediately discovered that he had only visited the head of an inferior branch, and that the true Nile originated far to the west, among the Mountains of the Moon. Whether the branch visited by Bruce, called the *Bahr-el-Azreek* or 'Blue River,' or the Western branch, called the *Bahr-el-Abiad* or 'White River,' had the better claim to be regarded as the head or main branch of the Egyptian river was long disputed. The name of the Nile indicates its relation to the Blue River rather than to the other stream. M. Calliaud, a French traveller, who accompanied a predatory excursion of the pasha of Egypt's two sons into Nubia, states that two considerable rivers, the *Tournat* and the *Jabousse* flow from Abyssinia into the Blue River,—the latter at the distance of two days and a half southward of Fazole,—a circumstance which renders it impossible that the Azreek should have its rise in Abyssinia. But, wherever the most distant sources of the Nile are actually situated, it appears to be chiefly fed by the rivers of Abyssinia, and to these its inundations are chiefly owing. We may regard therefore the Abyssinian Nile, or the Blue River, as the head-stream of the river of Egypt; but, to prevent confusion, restrict the name of the Nile to the united waters of the Blue and White rivers.

When the Nile leaves Nubia it flows northwards, forming several cataracts, from the island of Philoe to Elephantine. The second cataract is the most violent; the third occurs at Syene or Assouan, and introduces the Nile over a granite barrier into Upper Egypt. "It cannot be denied," says Jomard, "that the country of the cataracts is one of the most striking and picturesque in the whole valley of the Nile."¹³ From Syene to

¹³ We may here insert one or two passages from the memoranda of one of the latest travellers who have visited this spot. "On leaving the modern village of Assouan, we passed through the vestiges of the old Arabic town to the southward, which stood on a commanding eminence, and in its ruined state presented one of the most deserted scenes that could be imagined. On a ground, strewn with the granite fragments of Egyptian ruins, the bricks and pottery of Roman remains, and the vestiges of early Christian churches, are the brown walls and arched chambers of a Saracen settlement, the skeleton forms of which are standing in unconnected groups, and these again interspersed with more recent fabrics, the tombs of saints, and all the triumph of death, in an extensive modern cemetery. Beyond this, to the east, lies a dreary desert, extending as far as the eye can reach, and possessing no bounds but the western ocean; while among its yellow hills of stone and sand, not a blade of verdure, or a solitary tree interposes, to break its sterile monotony. A few paces brought us into a fine broad antique road, at least 200 feet wide, admirably levelled, and cut with much labour along a tract everywhere interspersed with detached rocks, which must have been removed from adjoining quarries to form it. These masses are still seen on the right, while the left is flanked with a wall built of unbaked bricks, in a partially pyramidal form, like those which encircled the ancient Eliethas, having the base about double the thickness of the summit,

Cairo the river flows along a valley about 8 miles broad, as far as the strait called Ibel-el-Jilaileh,—a distance of about 40 miles. It then runs along the right side of the valley. The mountains which confine the basin of the Nile in Upper Egypt are intersected by defiles, which on one side lead to the shores of the Red Sea, and on the other to the Oases. Near Cairo, the chains which limit the valley of the Nile diverge on both sides; and in front of them a vast plain extends, composed of sands covered with the alluvial deposit of the Nile. At Bata-el-Bahara the river divides into two

and which, from its occasional termination at forts and strongholds, has been considered a portion of military lines, or a fragment of a celebrated wall extending from hence to El Arish, on the coast of Syria, built by a queen of Egypt called Zuleikha, daughter of one of the Pharaohs. Upon the blocks of granite which the traveller meets at every step, hieroglyphic figures and inscriptions are sculptured, though the stones, judging from their present form, could never have been used in any buildings. They record, perhaps, some event happening on the spot, some work undertaken and completed in the neighbourhood, or some dedication to a divinity for delivery from danger. As we continued to advance, the scenery grew more wild and awful. It was like a ruin of nature itself—as if the earth had been shaken to her very centre, and rocks and mountains had been hurled from their foundations by the violence of her convulsive throes. In the hollow of caverns, formed by these grotesque combinations, flocks and families had taken up their residences, and secured to themselves dwellings which nothing but a similar revolution could destroy. By examining some rocks where the water-mark of the present inundation had been left, we found that the Nile had already fallen a perpendicular height of 18 feet,—a proof that its rise and fall is infinitely greater here than in Lower Egypt, where the stream widens and increases the number of its channels, and thus becoming less confined, gains in surface what it loses in depth. It may be doubted whether the obstruction of the Nile, by these rocks, may be properly called a cataract, since there is at this moment absolutely no fall of more than 5 or 6 inches; and during the height of the inundation, boats of the largest size navigate the rapids without much danger. Even now, a boat of 10 or 12 tons was in the act of transporting a cargo of dates from Nubia to Assouan, by being partially lightened of her burden, and then dropped with the current, from one rock to another, by the aid of a small grass hawser or cable. This, which was an affair of such ease, that it might be performed by any two of our young London watermen, occupied at least 50 Arabs, and had collected more than double that number on both sides of the shore, to witness their *chef d'œuvre* of river navigation. It is only in the most obstructed channels that the rapids are strong, and even there, the utmost velocity of the Nile may be taken at 5 or 6 miles per hour; while, through the broad and shallow passages, the stream runs at the rate of from 2 to 3 miles an hour only, in proportion to its depth. As the day was warm, we waded through the water from one cluster of rocks to another, visiting almost every island which obstructed the passage of the Nile; and it must be confessed that, to the lovers of wild and majestic scenery, nothing could be more romantically picturesque. Towering mountains were formed on each side the river, of immense masses of black granite heaped on each other, and hanging in an endless variety of forms; while their broad shadows cast upon the surface of the stream a fine dark gloom, quite in keeping with the scene. In the centre of the Nile were again seen smaller combinations of rocks, which formed innumerable islets, over some of which the water partially flowed, while their sharp points, cutting the current in its course, created foaming breakers in miniature, the murmurs of which were the only sounds that disturbed the stillness of the calm. In some of the hollows, worn out by the annual friction of the rising inundation, and whirlpools when the Nile was at its height, a bed of rich alluvial soil had been deposited, from which had sprung up young trees, plants, and bushes, the isolated verdure of which derived a higher beauty from contrast, and seemed like little Edens encompassed by a wilderness. The very rocks themselves too exhibited all the varieties of form and colour, possible to be conceived; while their adamantine surfaces exposed to the constant stream, were worn to a smoothness of polish, which art could scarcely give to them; and by the infinite variety of their positions reflected back the rays of an unclouded sun from every point, like dark steel mirrors. If one only of these masses of granite rocks had been met with in any other situation, it would be impossible to persuade one's self that they were not covered with some transparent varnish. Here were huge mountains of basalt, and black and rose-coloured granite, the latter crossed with veins of the finest porphyry and smaller lines of brilliant quartz, changing at every step, their hue of shade, and quality of grain; while the awful depth of this dark and silent valley gave to the unclouded sky a brighter blue, and produced altogether a splendid picture of Nature in her wildest dress. Not a single outlet for the stream is visible in any one direction from its centre, the curves of the river's banks shutting in the opposite points, and giving it the appearance of an encircled lake, rendering the spectator, to use a sea phrase, completely land locked; while the magnificent monuments and temples of Philoe, seen from hence, give an increased magnificence to the scene." *Sphinx* I. 62.

branches, the one flowing to Rosetta, and the other to Damietta, and containing between them the triangular piece of land already described under the name of the Delta. The different *bogaz* or mouths of the Nile have often changed their position, and are still changing it,—a circumstance which has occasioned much discussion among geographers. Seven mouths were known to the ancients of which only two now exist, and these appear to have been originally artificial, namely,—the Rosetta or Bolbitine mouth, having a general depth of from 4 to 5 feet,—and the Damietta or Bucolic mouth, having an average depth of 7 or 8 feet. In its ordinary state the Nile cannot carry vessels of above 60 tons burthen; but, when the waters are in flood, there is a depth of above 40 feet at its mouths, and caravels of 24 guns can sail up to Cairo: the navigation against the stream being facilitated by the strong northerly winds. The passage from Cairo to the Mediterranean occupies 8 or 10 days. The cataracts are sometimes passed with the aid of a little address, as explained in a preceding note.

Lakes.] The maritime districts of Egypt present several lakes, or rather lagoons, formed by the waters of the sea which have overflowed the lower grounds. The largest of these is the lake of *Menzaleh*, called by Niebuhr *Baheire*, which begins half a league to the E. of Damietta, and occupies a large portion of the territory through which the Pelusian, Tanitic, and Mendesian arms of the Nile formerly flowed. It is separated from the sea by a low and rather narrow neck of land, and stretches as far as the ancient Pelusium—a distance of 43,000 toises, or 269,544 feet. Its greatest breadth is 12,000 toises, or 76,896 feet. It is connected with the sea by two navigable openings, and contains several small islands. The inhabitants of the surrounding country are a hardy but savage race.—Between the Rosetta and Damietta branches of the Nile is the lake *Burullus* or *Brulos*, which discharges itself through the ancient Sebennytic arm of the Nile. The surrounding country is inhabited by a rude and fierce race called Beshmurians.—To the S. of Alexandria is lake *Mareotis*, or *Birket-Mariyut*. For many ages this lake was dried up; but in 1801 the English, in order to cut off the communication which the French army in the city of Alexandria maintained with the surrounding country, cut across a narrow embankment which separated the bed of this lake from lake *Maadiéh*, or the lake of *Aboukir*, on the E., formed by the Canopian branch of the Nile, and thus laid the country under water.—Lake *Etko* communicates with the sea by a narrow mouth. In the province of Fayoum is an extensive lake called *Birket-el-Queroun*, about 30 miles long and 6 broad. Pliny describes it as resembling a sea in extent in his time. It is believed to have been an artificial excavation executed by an ancient king of Egypt, by leading a canal from the Nile into its basin. Belzoni thinks the water was retained by a dam at its place of entrance, and a second irrigation thus produced.

Canals.] There is a great discrepancy in the manner of reckoning canals in this country, for while one traveller assigns 6000 to Upper Egypt alone, another allows only 90! The fact is, one traveller notices only the larger ones, while another enumerates every branch however small. There is no doubt that this country was in ancient times well supplied with artificial water-lines for the purposes of irrigation as well as of commerce.—The *Calideh-Menhi*, or *Bahr Yousef*, or canal of Joseph, is represented by some geographers as an artificial branch of the Nile, extending from Meylaoury, along the foot of the Libyan chain, a distance of 116 miles, with a breadth of from 50 to 300 feet; but is considered by others as

merely a natural branch of the river. It affords the double advantage of watering the district of Fayoum, and of disposing of the superabundant waters of the Nile, which it conveys into the Birket-el-Queroun.—In some maps a canal-line is traced under the name of *Bathen*; but this is not a proper name at all, it is a general appellation given to all canals running from S. to N., and the largest of these is called *Ptyad Bathen*.—The *Mahmoudian*, or great canal of *Alexandria*, which the pasha has lately made, or rather revived, for the purpose of connecting the Nile with the sea at Alexandria, is an extraordinary work. For a considerable time, it is said, 150,000 men were employed about it, chiefly Arabs of Upper Egypt, of these 20,000 died during the progress of the work; and although the labour was compulsory, it cost, nevertheless, 77,000 francs for every kilometre. This is fully equal to the expense of undertakings of the same nature in France executed by voluntary labour. This canal commences at the city of Fouah, and traverses an entirely desolate and deserted country. Since its opening in 1820, it has been navigable by the vessels of the Nile. It is 48 miles in length; its depth—which varies with the height of the river—is sometimes as low as 6, and at other times as much as 20 feet. When the river is low, its breadth is not more than 30 feet; but generally it extends from 60 to 80 feet. If the water of this canal experienced no fluctuation, merchandise could at all times be transported from Cairo to Alexandria, which would be of immense advantage to the commerce of the country; for the violence of the winds at one time, and the deadness of the calms at another, often delay vessels for weeks and months together coming from Rosetta. This canal was executed in the short period of six weeks.—Another projected canal—which, however, was intended solely for navigation—namely, that of *Suez*, has furnished matter for many discussions. According to the estimate of the French engineers, who were in Egypt with Bonaparte, the whole expense of a deep canal, which would connect the Arabic gulf with the Nile and the Mediterranean,—make Africa an island,—and shorten the voyage from Marseilles to Bombay one-half,—would not exceed £700,000, a sum considerably less than has been expended on some single works of the same kind in Great Britain. This canal, according to the scale proposed by the French engineers, would admit sea-vessels drawing from 12 to 15 feet water, at the height of the Nile. But were the branch of Tymeh to answer the purpose intended, sea-vessels of moderate burthen would be able to pass from the Mediterranean to the Red sea, at all times. To Britain, Russia, Germany, and the other countries in the N.W. of Europe, the route by the Red sea would probably never supersede that by the Cape, for the India and China trade generally; but to the French, Spaniards, Italians, Austrians, and Greeks, who have ports in the Mediterranean, it would shorten the communication with Arabia, Persia, and India, from a half to two-thirds. The canal would thus afford them vast advantages. There is no doubt, indeed, that it would give a powerful impulse to the commerce of all the States in the S. and S.E. of Europe, and greatly increase the intercourse between Europe and Asia. Though goods might continue to be generally carried between Britain and India by the present route, there is little doubt that despatches would be always transmitted by this canal, and that ships fitted up expressly for passengers would regularly ply upon the shorter line of communication. Were it found practicable to employ steam-power, it is probable that the voyage from England to Bombay, which at present occupies four months, might be accomplished by the canal in six weeks, the distance being about 7,200

miles. The engineers who accompanied the French army ascertained the traces and remains of a canal, which had existed in some remote age, across this isthmus; and the Arabian geographers attest that this canal was used for the purposes of navigation from 644 to 767. It goes from Balbeis, on the old Pelusian branch of the Nile, to Abbaseh, where it enters the narrow valley of Arabes-Tommylat, whence it passes on to Abookesheyd and the basin of the Bitter lakes, or Salt marshes, as they are called in more modern maps. Beyond this basin its traces re-appear in the isthmus which separates these lakes from the Red sea.

CHAP. III.—CLIMATE—PRODUCTIONS—CULTURE.

SAVARY calls Egypt a terrestrial paradise,—Volney, another French author, assures us, it is a most unpleasant country to reside in. The fact is, Egypt has four distinct seasons; and as its aspect undergoes periodical and striking changes with the seasons, the descriptions given of it by the traveller, entirely depend on the season during which he visits it. The first is that of the inundation of the Nile, which extends from the first day of July to the winter-solstice. During the months of August and September, the whole country appears like one vast sea, in which the towns and villages rise like so many islands. During this season the air is moist, and the mornings and evenings are foggy. The second season begins in the middle of December, and lasts till March. Though the nights are cold, this period may be called the Egyptian spring; the days are hot, and the vegetation is rapid and luxurious. The third season begins in March, and lasts till the end of May. It has been called the Endemic-season, from the prevalence of endemic diseases during its continuance. The fourth season, extending from June till the period of the swelling of the Nile, is in the highest degree pleasant and refreshing. The beauty of the night in Egypt has been the theme of every traveller's eulogy. The sky is so cloudless, and the brightness of the moon so intense, that the natives who sleep in the open air—as they are much accustomed to do—usually cover their eyes, in order to save them being injured by the rays, as their effect upon the sight is said to be more violent here than even that of the sun. It is a curious meteorological fact, that the abundance of the dews deposited in the night is always in proportion to the clearness of the atmosphere. Excepting along the sea-shores, nothing is rarer in Egypt than rain. The season in which any rain falls is considered winter. At Cairo, there are, on an average, four or five showers in the year; in Upper Egypt one or two at most. The difference between the greatest heat of summer, and the greatest cold, in Egypt, is about 30°. The thermometer commonly ranges in summer from 90° to 92°; and in winter from 58 to 60°. Frost is very rare.

Winds.] The winds in Egypt blow with a regularity which in many countries is unknown. During the months of June and July they are said always to blow from the N. or N. W. During August and September they retain a northerly direction; and their force, which at this time is moderate, is weaker by night than by day. About the end of September they generally take an easterly direction. When the sun approaches the southern tropic, the winds are more variable and tempestuous than during any other time of the year. In this state they remain during the months of December, January, and February. At the end of February they settle

S. ; and during the months of March and April they blow from the S. S. E. and S. In May, they become again northerly, and thus proceed in an almost regular cycle. Egypt frequently feels those burning blasts which are common in all warm countries in the neighbourhood of deserts. These winds in Egypt are denominated 'Winds of fifty days,' because they are most prevalent during fifty days at each equinox. They blow always from the S., and seldom more than three days at a time. During their continuance, the face of nature is changed ; the sky lowers, and the sun, laying aside his splendour, becomes of a violet colour. This appearance is attributed, not to any cloud which arises in the atmosphere, but to the great quantity of sand, of an impalpable fineness, with which the air is loaded. The heat, according to Volney, is like that of an oven when the bread is about to be drawn ; but its destructive qualities seem to be less owing to its heat, than to its extreme dryness, which makes it violently to imbibe every particle of moisture wherever it passes. The skin immediately becomes parched ; water sprinkled on the floor is instantly evaporated ; every plant is stripped of its leaves ; and every living creature suffers a kind of temporary fever. Earthquakes have been observed in Egypt ; there were violent shocks felt in this country in 1809 and 1813.

Diseases.] The plague was long thought to originate in Egypt ; and so certain did this position appear, that Dr Mead endeavoured to account for the fact from natural causes. After more diligent inquiries, however, physicians seem to think that the plague always originates in Constantinople, and is propagated thence by the carelessness of the Turks, who take no pains to shun the infection. The clothes of such persons as have died of this disorder are publicly sold ; and considerable quantities are exported to Egypt : and it has generally been observed, that the plague makes its appearance here after the arrival of a vessel from Constantinople or Smyrna,—that it first appears on the coast,—and that it gradually extends into the upper country. But although this disease may thus be transplanted from Constantinople to Egypt, in the former place it is more violent in summer, and in the latter in winter. If the plague be not a native of Egypt, ophthalmia may be justly accounted indigenous. Volney informs us, that in Cairo, of 100 people scarcely 50 have their eyes in a sound state ; that of the other 50, 20 are totally blind, 10 blind of one eye, and 20 with their eyes red, purulent, or blemished ; and this he attributes to the practice of sleeping upon terraces, and making use of unwholesome food, particularly a great quantity of raw onions. This disease makes its greatest ravages during the inundations, and attacks principally persons who sleep in the open air. It seems to be cherished by a specific contagion existing in the country. The venereal disease, here called 'the blessed evil,' is very common. Cutaneous distempers prevail annually. Malignant fevers are very prevalent, and the small-pox frequently proves fatal. Inoculation is known ; but the bigotry of the Mahometans has hitherto prevented it from being put in general practice, notwithstanding the example afforded by their pasha.

General Culture.] Where nature is assisted by industry, two or three harvests may be annually reaped in different parts of this country. Wheat is cultivated throughout the whole of Egypt ; but most extensively in the districts of Thebes, Girgeh, Siout, Minyeh, Gizeh, Menouf, and Mansourah. The best wheat grows at Maraga, in Upper Egypt. Where the lands, by their elevation, are protected from the inundations of the river, such plants as require repeated waterings during their growth, are sown.

In Upper Egypt these lands are chiefly sown with the dourah (*Holcus dourah*), which forms the ordinary food of the peasantry. This grain is sometimes eaten like maize or Indian corn, in a green state, being previously roasted on the fire; its stalk is eaten green like the sugar-cane; its dried pith is used as starch; and the leaves are eat by cattle. In some districts of the Delta maize is employed as a substitute for dourah. Rice is cultivated only in the northern parts of Lower Egypt. Barley, with six rows of grains in the ear, (*Hordeum hexastichon*) is very generally cultivated. Lentiles are peculiar to the province of Fayoum, which is also distinguished for the cultivation of the rose-plant, from which is obtained the rose-water, in so great request over all the East. Beans are a very common article of food; they are sold boiled in all public places, and also serve as food for camels. A great variety of pot-herbs are grown. The roots of *Arum colocasia*, and of the lotus,¹⁵ are eaten. The onion is a principal object of culture still, as in the days of the Israelites, except in the southern districts of Thebes, and the lower parts of the Delta. The cucurbitaceous plants, and also tobacco and lupins, cover the banks of the Nile as the water subsides. The former may be said to grow visibly, for a cucumber or melon-shoot will sometimes grow 24 inches in twenty-four hours; the tobacco is weak but delicate. The seeds of the *Mesembryanthemum nudiflorum*, and *Zygophyllum coccineum* are employed by the Arabs for fuel; the Egyptians use dried cow-dung and the roots of certain plants, for the same purpose. The *Nymphaeas* grow in great quantities in the Delta during the period of inundation. *Sodada acidua* grows in the desert tracts on both sides of the Nile. The celebrated papyrus-plant is now rare. It is a kind of three-cornered reed, (*Cyperus papyrus* L.) which is now to be found in no other part of Egypt than the environs of Damietta and the banks of lake Menzaleh. A large and beautiful fruit-tree, the persea of the Greeks, seems to have totally disappeared from the Egyptian soil. Egypt is destitute of forests; only the banks of the river and of the canals here and there present coppices of acacias and mimosas. Part of the fields overflowed by the Nile are sown with grass and trefoil. Spices of different kinds are grown, and also sugar-cane, poppies, madder, indigo, flax, hemp, and cotton. The nopal, or Indian fig, serves for hedge-rows; apricots, peaches, and plums, are abundant, but of a coarse quality; figs, bananas, and oranges, are good. Some European species of fruit-trees do not grow in Egypt: this is the case with the almond, the walnut, and the cherry. It has been remarked that the soil of Egypt has this peculiar quality, that although European plants succeed well at the first, the seed degenerates, and must always be renewed from Europe. The sycamore, the carob, the jujube, the tamarind, and other trees, are cultivated; but none of them are equal in number and usefulness to the date-palm, although some of them furnish good timber. Date-groves frequently consist of 300 or 400 trees, and sometimes of several

¹⁵ Much learned disquisition has been engaged in ascertaining what plant is the lotus, which makes a great figure in the writings of antiquity. It is a native of Egypt, and it is now ascertained that it is a species of *Nymphaea* or water-lily, which, on the disappearance of the inundation, covers all the canals and pools with its broad round leaves, among which its flowers, in the form of cups of bright white or azure blue, rest with inimitable grace on the surface of the water. The rose-lily of the Nile, or the Egyptian bean, which is seen carved on the ancient monuments of Egypt, is not now found in that country, and would have been unknown to naturalists if they had not found it in India. It is the *Nymphaea nelumbo* of Linnæus. It was on this that the lotus-eaters lived. But the fruits of the lotus, praised by Homer, and which so much delighted the companions of Ulysses, were those of the modern jujube, or *Rhamnus lotus*.

thousands; the timber is used for many domestic purposes; the leaves are formed into baskets; and the fibres are manufactured into ropes; the fruit itself is well known. The vine is now nearly confined to the province of Fayoum, and the district of Bourlos. The feasts of Antony and Cleopatra were furnished with the juice of the Mareotic grape; and in the days of Pliny, Sebennytus furnished the Roman tables with the most approved wine. The olive is now confined to the province of Fayoum.

Culture of Cotton.] Cotton is generally sown in the month of April, when small trenches are made at a distance of one and a half to three feet, according to the land, in which three or four grains are deposited at each foot and a half; in the event of all springing up, one or two are taken out. Rich soil is always chosen; sandy ground has been found not to answer. It does not afford sufficient nourishment to the plants, and the staple on such land has been invariably short. It is found necessary to have it regularly watered throughout the year, and on this account the borders of the Nile, or the sides of the canals, are chiefly employed for its culture. It is watered by the hand for the first three or four days after it has begun to sprout; but when the plant has gained some degree of strength, it is only required every ten or twelve days, which is done by means of a machine, so constructed as to draw the water from the river or canal. The neighbourhood of Cairo and Upper Egypt are the places where it is produced in the greatest abundance; and the crops in these parts are generally ready for gathering at the end of July, whilst that which is grown on the borders of the sea, is not ready till late in August. Cotton is grown by the same plants until January. One person is fully equal to the cultivation of a *fedan*, which corresponds with $333\frac{1}{2}$ perches of 11 feet. It yields from 2 to 8 *cantars* per *fedan*, according to land and climate. The expenses attending the cultivation are: duty of territory 37 pia.; water 1, beasts 30 pia.; labour 40 pia.; and cleaning 5 pia.; total, 112 piastres per *fedan*. We understand the plough is generally used. The cultivation of the common Egyptian cotton is widely different from that of the *maho*, which is grown in the plains, and the seed moistened before it is sown: it requires watering but a short while after it springs, the moisture of the night being found sufficient. It is very generally believed that the seed of the *Maho* cotton was originally introduced into this country from the Brazil, by a Frenchman, named Jumel, which is erroneous. It is a native seed, the good quality of which was first discovered by Jumel, who was the first person that recommended the pasha to attend to its cultivation. At the period of discovery, it was growing in the garden of *Maho* Bey, from which circumstance it draws its name. The plants are retained three years.

Growth of Wheat.] The grain sent annually to Constantinople is not the only corn-tribute which the pasha is obliged to pay to the Ottoman Porte. He is also bound to find subsistence (for a specified number of days,) to the great caravan which passes every year from the coasts of Barbary to Mecca, and to those which set out every third year from the States of Morocco for the same pilgrimage. The subsistence of the holy cities of Medina and Mecca is likewise supplied by Egypt, and it is *Ali* who regularly sends a competent gratuity for their consumption. All these facts prove the fertility and the abundance of Egypt; history informs us truly that before Constantine's time, Egypt and Africa maintained Rome; but after that emperor had removed the seat of the empire to Byzantium, Egypt was charged with furnishing provisions for the latter capital. There

are in this country it is said above 10,000,000 of acres capable of cultivation. A part of these for more than 3,000 years has been cropped once, and sometimes twice in the year, without any invigoration from manure or fallowing; and still the grateful soil shows no symptom of exhaustion or impoverishment. The only nutriment it receives is a top-dressing of alime mould from the inundations of the Nile. About 7,000,000 of acres are well-adapted for the growth of wheat; the other 3,000,000 being only partially inundated, are more productive of millet, lentils, and pulse. During the war, nearly all the wheaten produce was exported to Europe by the government: nine-tenths of the inhabitants being fed upon maize and *dourrah*. Every acre of land is in the hands of Mehemed Ali, who is fully alive to the scheme of exportation, and of rendering his kingdom the granary of the world, as it was in the days of his predecessors. This seems to have been a pride long cherished, and for which he has executed the most enormous undertakings. In 1817, when corn was scarce in Europe, ships flocked from all parts to procure a supply in Egypt; but owing to the bar at the mouth of the Nile, near Rosetta, the boats could not come up to Alexandria from the interior, and more than 300 sail were consequently compelled to put off in ballast. Mehemed determined to remedy this obstacle, and, by the advice of Mr Briggs, cut the canal of Mahmoudiah, already described. Vessels of considerable burthen can now safely make up to Alexandria, and there only is wanted a market for Egyptian grain to fulfil the projects of its enterprising pasha. This royal farmer can afford his corn at almost any price. He is at once the landowner and occupier of all Egypt! The Fellahs who cultivate the land are virtually his slaves. They live on *dourrah*, and in dwellings the most miserable. The labour costs Mehemed nothing. Of course he has no rent to pay; the Nile supplies him with manure, and he grows his own seed. The sole expense at Alexandria is the carriage; and that consists almost exclusively of the wear and tear of vessels.

Animals.] In Upper Egypt all agricultural labour is performed by oxen; but the want of meadows prevents the multiplication and improvement of cattle. We have already described in our general article on this continent, the camel, dromedary, hippopotamus, and crocodile; and need not, therefore, revert to them. The two latter primeval inhabitants of the Nile seem to be banished from the Delta; but the crocodile is sometimes seen in Upper Egypt. An elegant species of dromedary, called *hegyn*, is reared by some Arab tribes; herds of antelopes traverse the deserts; sheep and goats are reared,—the finest wool is produced by the Fayoum flocks. The Mamelukes used to keep a beautiful race of saddle-horses. The Egyptian asses are of singular docility and beauty. The larger beasts of prey find neither prey nor shelter in this country. Jackalls, and a species of wild dog, however, are numerous; and wild boars exist in the western deserts. The ichneumon is the same animal which the ancients mention under that name, as peculiar to Egypt. Zoology has recently been enriched with several new species of animals brought from Egypt, among which are the jerboa, a new species of hare, a new species of fox, a bat, and four different species of rats. Some species of Egyptian serpents are extremely venomous; and others are not dangerous, and these are supposed to be the kind which the ancient Egyptians revered as emblems of the good genius.¹⁴

¹⁴ "Dr Ricci, who had made a nine months' stay at Thebes, told me, that one day taking his dinner near the catacombs, he saw ten of these animals, four or five feet in

The birds of Egypt are not numerous; and do not much differ from those of Europe. The peasants keep large flocks of pigeons and chickens. Bees are kept in great quantities throughout the country in boats. The bees spread themselves over both banks of the river in quest of food, and return regularly on board in the evening. This singular practice seems to have originated thus: In Upper Egypt, all plants and flowers blossom much earlier than in Lower Egypt; the hives are, therefore, transported on the river to those districts where the bees can procure the earliest and best nourishment. The Nile abounds in fish of various kinds.

!!! (*Minerals.*] Egypt seems not to have produced any of the metals, with the exception of a little copper. Emeralds are said to have been formerly found, but the spot has not been accurately determined. Red granite, white granite with hornblende, gray felspar, black hornblende, porphyry, micaceous schistus, sandstone, breccia serpentine, lapis lazuli, white marble with veins of silver mica, swine-stone, basalt, different kinds of jasper, the ancient chrysolite or topaz, amethyst, rock-crystal, chalcedony, onyx, cornelian, heliotrope, obsidian, and lazulite are found in this country.

CHAP. IV.—COMMERCE & MANUFACTURES.

No country is by nature so happily situated for commerce as Egypt, connecting as it does three continents, and all the principal seas of the globe. To avail herself, however, of these advantages, she must again have an administration somewhat like that of the Ptolemies. Since the discovery of the cape of Good Hope, she has lost entirely the commerce of India, which she enjoyed for more than 2000 years. The small quantity of Indian goods which are now brought to the port of Cosair are merely for the supply of the country itself. A considerable trade is carried on with the Franks or Christians through the port of Alexandria, and with different parts of the Turkish empire by Damietta. A most extensive commerce is kept up with the interior of Africa by means of caravans, or companies of merchants, three of which set out annually for the inland kingdoms of this vast continent. One goes to Sennar, and collects the products both of that country and of Abyssinia; another goes to Darfour; while a third proceeds to Fexxan, through which are brought the products of Bornou, and of all the countries along the Niger, consisting of gold, ivory, senna, and slaves. Cairo is the centre of the iniquitous traffic in slaves, whence they are dispersed through Turkey, Persia, and other Asiatic countries. The war with the Wechabites inflicted a severe blow on Egyptian commerce; for, before these people obtained possession of most of the ports on the Red sea, which, however were afterwards regained by the troops of the pasha, regular caravans used to depart for Egypt at the commencement of June, and the Egyptian fleet also sailed at that period for Arabia, whence it returned at the commencement of October. At present, many obstacles still embarrass the regular course and security of this commerce, such as the increase of imports, pillages

length, of a flesh colour inclining to rose, approach, and glide over some vessels filled with milk, which were on the ground, in order to drink. Their body, in this most graceful position, seemed to be a part of the vessel, and to form the handle, and it was doubtless in this manner that these animals gave the ancients the idea of those beautiful vases, the elegant forms of which we still endeavour to imitate."—*Recollections of Egypt*

and exactions of all kinds, an embargo scarcely ever intermitted upon vessels seized for the purpose of transporting troops from one place to another,—but, above all, the extraordinary depreciation in the intrinsic value of the Turkish and Egyptian money. Cordage, bars of iron, &c. are among the few articles which Egypt still exchanges with the Indies. The relations between Egypt and Arabia have not suffered so greatly. Ceremonies of much solemnity mark the departure of the grand caravan from Cairo in the month of June. A religious fete is then celebrated with the greatest magnificence, and a grand fair is held which lasts from 5 to 20 days. Before affairs were disturbed by the enterprises of the pasha in the interior of Africa, it was not an unusual sight to see 50,000 or 60,000 pilgrims collected round the city in tents at this season. From the time that Mehemmed Ali reduced under the dominion of Egypt, a part of Nubia and the whole of Sennaar, the commerce of these provinces has been made subordinate to that of their mistress, and may now be considered as an integral part of that active trade which exists among the different provinces, cities, and towns of Egypt. In the course of the year 1823, merchandise to the amount of 6,976,400 piastres was exported from Egypt. On the other hand, the total amount of the importation cannot be calculated, as the greater part passing to the account of government pays no duty. The government, however, takes great pains to induce the belief, that the importation is less in value by one-half than the exportation; and that the latter spreads throughout the country, the Spanish piastres, sequins, and Hungarian coins, the only coins which have mercantile currency. The orders given for many years past for cannon, arms, the purchase and building of ships-of-war, and military stores, and the immense number of foreign artizans, induced at a great expense to settle in Egypt, occasion an expenditure which must certainly balance the produce of the exports. The government also sustains a great loss in the purchase of foreign manufactures, which fetch a high price, while the cotton, corn, and indigo of Egypt are received in exchange at a very low rate. The pasha is bound towards the grand seignor in an annual tribute of about 4,000,000 of francs, partly payable in merchandise, and partly in money: hence a great deal of merchandise which might otherwise enter into the account of the exchange with other nations, is lost to Egypt. Of 819 vessels which left the port of Alexandria in 1825, 444 were destined for Europe. At the spot where the Mahmoudian canal flows into the port of Alexandria, the pasha has established a large magazine for the reception of the corn and other merchandise destined for foreign exportation. The articles of export are rice, corn, salt fish, rose-water and essence; sulphur, opium, stone-ware, matting, carpets, linen and cotton-cloths, natron, indigo, and raw cotton. In 1823, the pasha exported to Constantinople, wheat, 1,500,000 quintals (ancient weight of France); pulse, 900,000 quintals; grain of different sorts, such as maize, lentiles, lupins, &c. 950,000 quintals; rice, 700,000 quintals; flax, 30,000 quintals; hemp, 15,000 quintals; linseed oil, 12,000 quintals; saffron, 22,000 quintals; indigo pastel, 2000 quintals; soda, 60,000 quintals; natron, 1,000,000 quintals; salt of nitre, 50,000 quintals; wool, 50,000 quintals; raw and refined sugar, 33,000 quintals; hides, raw and dressed, 40,000. In order to secure an easier and quicker communication with Europe, the viceroy of Egypt has lately caused the soil in various districts of Syria to be pierced, in the hope of discovering coal-mines, the coal taken from which might be used in the steam vessels which it is his purpose to construct.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE EXPORTS OF EGYPTIAN PRODUCE FROM ALEXANDRIA
IN THE YEAR 1824.

		Alexandria, Constantinople, &c.	Genoa, Malta, Trieste, &c.	France.	England.	Holland and Bel- gium.	Total.
Wheat,	ardeb*	181,978	135,392	3,255	320,575
Beans	do..	9,059	170,440	8,231	184,739
Rice	do..	36,624	22,004	272	61,900
Barley	do..	18,541	55,918	73,359
Pean	do..	1,837	7,054	8,891
Linseed	do..	..	27,611	..	22,146	5,311	55,068
Cotton	balen†	675	43,906	58,898	40,507	1,327	145,223
Flax	do..	1,234	1,905	..	398	..	3,537
Linen Cloth	do..	1,341	873	2	2,116
Cotton Twist	do..	65	227	60	352
Linen ditto	do..	130	220	350
Coffee	Canstar‡	17,961	2,082	325	20,378
Sugar	do..	1,843	2,073	30	..	178	4,114
Tortoise shell cases	do..	16	24	6	46
Mother-of-Pearl	do..	59	111	70	..	4	244
Hides	No.	12,098	79,784	2,540	94,322
Natron.....	ales	..	375,124	..	4,585	23,000	382,459

* Ardeb—About a Quarter, English.

† Balen—Cotton, about 220 lbs. English. ‡ Canstar—About 123 lbs. English.

Growth and Exports of Cotton.] Cotton promises to be the most profitable, and is already a most important, article of export from this land of the Pharaohs. Until the year 1822, the growth of this article was merely a very inferior quality, and was confined to Lower Egypt; it amounted to about 30,000 or 40,000 bags, of two quintals each; the produce was chiefly consumed in domestic fabrics; some was also sent to Italy. The pasha, however, finding the Brazil cotton to grow well, planted, in 1822, a large district in Upper Egypt, as well as the country near Rosetta, and other parts of the Delta; and the growth of the inferior cotton has since been diminished.—The fine cotton now grown is called *maks*, (which is an Arabian word meaning *superfine*,) and of this, 20,000 to 25,000 bags were grown in 1822, of which 3000 were sent on trial to this country. In 1823, the crop amounted to 70,000 or 80,000 bags, of which 35,000 came to England.

Caravans.] The caravans from Abyssinia travel northwards, through the desert on the east of the Nile, as far as Esneh. They bring ivory and ostrich-feathers; but their principal trade consists in gum and young slaves. The Ababdeh and Bisharieh tribes also come to Esneh for metals and grain. The most valuable commodity which they exchange for these is the well known drug, senna, which they gather in the mountains between the Nile and the Red sea. The trade to Cosseir is conducted by persons going on pilgrimage to Mecca. Two caravans of from 4000 to 5000 camels arrive every year at Siout and Cairo from Darfoor. They bring ivory, gum, tamarinds, natron, and slaves, who are chiefly young girls or women. Egypt also receives caravans from Syria, Barbary, and Sennaar.

Manufactures.] Hitherto the spinning of cotton has promised but little in Egypt. The viceroy is the only person who interests himself in the introduction of this manufacture. The climate is a great obstacle; for, in consequence of the heat, the thread breaks,—the wood of the machine splits,—and the use of the fine machinery necessary for manufacturing is almost physically impossible, as a perpetual and imperceptible dust pervades the air, and penetrating amidst the wheel-work, disturbs and impedes motion. The best cotton-cloths of Upper Egypt are made at Esneh. The manufacture of woollen cloth at Boulak is already declining. A

saltpetre-manufactory has been established by an Italian of the name of Besi; it annually supplies the viceroy with 3000 cwts. of saltpetre, for which he pays 250,000 franks. The evaporation is performed in the sun, in 48 basins. It costs the government only 15 piastres per quintal, whereas the old method of evaporation, by means of fire, cost 30 piastres. A colony of 500 Syrians has been settled at Zabazik, to cultivate silk; a million of mulberry trees has been planted, but the quantity of silk produced is not considerable. At Balass, in Upper Egypt, a species of earthen jar, called *balasses*, are manufactured, which have an extensive sale throughout the whole of Egypt, Syria, and the Grecian archipelago. They have the property of allowing the water to transude gradually, and thus keeping up a refreshing coolness by its evaporation. In Siout and the neighbourhood, a considerable quantity of linen is manufactured.

CHAP. V. INHABITANTS—LITERATURE—RELIGION—FESTIVAL.

EGYPT is at present inhabited chiefly by three different races of men: Copts, Arabs, and Turks, whose united numbers have been estimated at a little above 2,500,000 souls.

The Copts.] The Copts are the supposed descendants of the ancient Egyptians, and more certainly the feeble remnant of a once Christian population. Few of them inhabit the Delta: they are found chiefly in Said or Upper Egypt. Their colour is yellow, and their features somewhat of the mulatto cast, and broader than those of the Arabs. They are no longer the philosophers of the human race, but still preserve a character of dexterity in business, superior to other Egyptians. They fill all those offices of state in which their peculiar talents are requisite; and for this reason they have obtained the name of 'writers.' They are, nevertheless, the slaves of the Turks, and are equally detested by them and by the common people. Their peculiar language is nearly extinct as a dialect of ordinary life, being almost confined to their church-service. Their numbers are estimated by Malte Brun at 200,000, by Mr Jowett at 100,000, and by M. Mengin at 160,000 souls.

Arabs and Fellahs.] The Arabs are of three classes; the posterity of those by whom Egypt was conquered, under Amrow Ebn Al As, the caliph Omar's general,—the Western Arabs, or Mogrebbins, descended from the Saracenic conquerors of Mauritania,—and the Bedouins, or inhabitants of the desert. Of these classes, the first is a strong robust race, sometimes designated *Fellahs*, and generally either artisans or husbandmen; the second follow the same occupations, and are numerous in Upper Egypt; and the last who are sometimes called *Scenites*, or 'dwellers in tents,' inhabit the desert, and subsist chiefly by robbery and plunder. Their manners and customs are not greatly different from those of the Arabs, which will be particularized in the proper place, and they all retain the original Arabian features faintly. Jointly they constitute the bulk of the population, and their numbers have been estimated at 2,300,000. Dr Hume thus describes the Egyptian *Fellahs*: "The lower orders of Egyptian Arabs appeared to me," says this traveller, "to be a quiet, inoffensive people, with many good qualities. They are, in general, tall and well-made, possessing much muscular strength, yet of a thin spare habit. Their complexion is very dark, their eyes black and sparkling, and their teeth good. Upon the whole, they are a fine race of men in their persons; and they are more active in agricultural employments than we should be led to imagine from

seeing the better sort of them in towns, smoking and passing their time in listless indolence. The dress of the poorer Arabs consists simply of a pair of loose blue or white cotton-drawers, with a long blue tunic, which serves to cover them from the neck to the ankles, and a small red woollen scull-cap, round which they occasionally wind a long strip of white woollen. They are sometimes so poor as not to be able to purchase even this last article. By means of his tunic, or long loose outer garment of dyed cotton, the wealthy Arab conceals from the proud and domineering Turk, a better and richer dress, consisting sometimes of the long and graceful Moslem habit of Damascus silk, covered with a fine cloth coat with short sleeves; and at other times, particularly among the Alexandrians and those connected with the sea, of a blue cloth short jacket, curiously and richly embroidered with gold, and white trousers reaching just below the knee, the legs bare. The articles of furniture in the house of an Egyptian Arab are extremely few. The rooms of all people of decent rank have a low sofa, called a *divan*, extending in general completely round three sides of the room: it is about nine inches or a foot from the floor, and is covered with mattresses, the back being formed by large square cushions, which are more or less ornamented according to the wealth of the owner. The beds are generally laid on a strong wicker-work made of the branches of the date-tree, or of mattresses placed on a raised platform at the end of the room. For their meals, they have a very low table, round which they squat on the mats covering the floor; this table is sometimes of copper tinned. They have no other furniture except culinary utensils. The mats are made of straw or of the flags of the branches of the date-tree, and are very neatly worked in figures. They are very durable, but harbour numbers of flies. The poorer sort of Arabs can seldom afford to eat animal food, but subsist chiefly on rice made into a *pilau*, and moistened with the rancid butter of the country. Their bread is made of the *holcus dourra* (millet). I have seen them sit down to a hearty meal of boiled horse-beans steeped in oil. When the date is in season, they subsist on the fruit; and in summer, the vast quantities of gourds of all kinds, and melons, supply them with food. The better sort eat mutton and fowls, though sparingly. At a dinner given to me by an Arab in the Delta, I observed one dish was formed of a quarter of mutton stuffed with almonds and raisins. Their drink is the milk of buffaloes, and the water of the Nile preserved and purified in cisterns. None but the higher orders, or those of dissolute lives, ever taste wine. Grapes grow in abundance at Rosetta, but little wine is made in Egypt. The Arabs carry on the common trades of civilised life, such as carpenters and smiths, but in a very unskilful and imperfect manner. They have a few manufactories: the principal one is the cotton-cloth, which is chain woven and very strong; a great part of it is dyed blue. There is a coarse silk-manufacture of a thin, open texture, with a wide border of various colours, but generally dark, which the better sort sometimes wear instead of what we call linen; but that commonly worn by the superior ranks, is a manufacture somewhat resembling white crape, but a little thicker, with a silk border: it soon acquires a yellow colour by washing. With respect to the economical arrangement of their families, we found that the Arabs have seldom more than two wives; commonly but one. The second wife is always subservient to the elder in the affairs of the house. The women colour their nails, the inside of their hands, and the soles of their feet, with a deep orange colour, sometimes a rosy colour, by means of henna. They likewise apply a black dye to their

eye-lashes, eye-brows, and the hair of their head : a brilliancy, it is supposed, is thus given to the eye, and the sight is improved. The women in general can neither read nor write, but the better sort are taught embroidery and ornamental needle-work, in which they mostly pass their time. The features of the Arab-Egyptian women are by no means regular. In general, the cheek-bones are high ; the cheeks broad and flabby ; the mouth large ; the nose short, thick, and flat, though in some it is prominent ; the eyes black, but wanting animation, owing in some measure to disease. The skin is of a disagreeable mulatto colour. The hair, which is commonly black, is matted, and often smeared with a stinking ointment : it is arranged in two or three divisions, and suffered to fall down the back. At a distance, the long, flowing robe which covers them to the heels, though it may conceal deformity, seems, by the easiness of its drapery, to heighten their stature, and even to render their air graceful. Indeed, I have never seen any women who have displayed so much easiness of manner or so fine a carriage, being superior in this respect even to the women of Circassia. Probably, the elegance and dignity of their gait may arise from the habit of carrying every thing on their heads. They are taller, in general, than our European woman. From their numerous and graceful gestures, I suppose their conversation might be pleasing in spite of the shrillness of their voices. As the army was passing through the villages, they mounted upon the house-tops, and made a confused noise like the cackling of cranes, which was interpreted to us as indicating wishes for our success."

Turks.] The Turks are now not only nominally but really masters of Egypt, and engross the chief military and religious employments. They are found chiefly in Cairo, and other large cities. They have greatly increased in number of late years, and differ little from the Turks of other parts of the world. Their numbers have been estimated at 20,000.

The Mamalukes.] The Mamalukes, till lately, were a fourth race of people that inhabited Egypt. This extraordinary race consisted of Georgian, and Circassian slaves, who, under the Fatimite Khalifs, were brought into the country, and being trained to arms became part of the military power of the State. They were thus enabled to rise against their masters, to massacre or expel them, and to assume the dominion of Egypt. By an unheard of caprice they transmitted their power, not to their children, whom they despised and neglected on account of their being reared in a harem, but to new bands of slaves, brought from the same place, and in the same manner as themselves. They were the rulers, indeed, but might with more propriety be styled the plunderers of Egypt, filling it with scenes of violence, and extorting vast sums, without affording any of those benefits or of that protection which a government owes to its subjects. They excelled, however, in feats of arms, and formed the best cavalry in the Turkish empire. They made a most vigorous resistance to the best troops of France, but were considerably broken by repeated defeats during the invasion by that power. After the evacuation of Egypt by the British, a war of extermination was waged by the Turks against the Mamalukes. Ali Pasha having succeeded in driving them from Ibrim, where they made their last stand, compelled them to retreat to Dongola the capital of Nubia, and, still more recently, into Darfoer, where it is probable they will soon become extinct.

There are some peculiar traits which distinguish the Egyptians generally from other Orientals. They are almost all, from the necessity of their situation in a country frequently laid under water, dexterous swimmers. They

are well-acquainted with the art of training animals; and the modern *pylles*, or enchanterers of serpents, are not inferior to the ancients.

Condition of Females.] The Baroness Minutoli makes the following remarks upon the condition of women in Egypt: "All that I have been able to learn by personal observation, and what I was told by several Levantine ladies, concur to prove that the situation of the women in the East is not so unhappy as we generally fancy it to be. The different races and sects of which the present population of Egypt is composed, have, it is true, this in common, that they shut up their women; and the Copts, though Christians, observe this custom with much more rigour than even the Arabs themselves; but this privation of liberty is only imaginary, and extends no farther than to prohibit them from appearing in public without a veil, which is a kind of cloak of black silk, which hides their form and their face in a frightful manner, and to exclude them from the society of the men. They are, notwithstanding, perfect mistresses at home, and exclusively command the slaves in their own service, who, in spite of the favours of their master, are no less dependent on the wife than on the latter. As their dwelling is always separate from that of their husband, they have a right to prevent him from entering it, by placing before the door a pair of slippers, which is a sign that they have company. The husband, who dares not appear in the presence of another person's wife, is obliged to respect this indication; and the German proverb, which says, 'that a man is under his wife's slipper,' may be perfectly applicable in the East. When they wish to visit any of their friends or relations, the husband has not the right of opposing them; and, attended by a faithful slave, they sometimes absent themselves from home for several weeks together. Under the pretext of these visits, I was assured that they allow themselves incredible liberty; in spite of their veils, and the locks under which they are shut up, they find means to indemnify themselves for this constraint; and it is here that we most see the truth of that maxim, which says: 'That virtue protects itself, and that good principles are the best dowry of a female.'"

Foreign Residents.] All Europeans are called *Franks* in Egypt, and there is now a considerable number of them in Egypt, Ali Pasha affording every encouragement to foreigners to settle in his dominions. A corrupt Italian dialect—the *Lingua Franca*—is current among the settlers. There are about 20,000 Jews in Egypt; some of the Egyptian Jewesses are uncommonly beautiful.

Languages and Religion.] The Coptic is supposed to have been the language of the ancient Egyptians. In the Memphitic dialect of this language there is a version of the Scriptures, and a few religious works, but it is no longer spoken. The Copts still profess Christianity, and the patriarch of Alexandria, who claims to be the successor of the apostle Mark, claims the supremacy not only over the churches of Egypt, but also over those of Abyssinia. The principal part of the inhabitants of Egypt, however, are Mahommedans, the prevailing language Arabic, and the Koran the text-book of all their studies. Astrology, magic, and sorcery, with various modes of divination, are still, as in ancient times, in high estimation. Poetry is much cultivated. Men of letters at Cairo profess great veneration for this delightful art, and cultivate a taste for the Asiatic classics. Some of the Bedouin Arabs are good poets; and an effusion of one of them, on the exploits of Bonaparte, is preserved in the memoirs of the Egyptian Institute. The present pasha has done much to encourage education, particularly of a scientific kind, within his dominions. There

is a college and lyceum at Boulak, near Cairo, at which a number of students are instructed in the French and Italian languages, and mathematical sciences; and various works have been translated into Arabic for their use. There were 700 students in the college at 1825. The pasha has likewise sent several young men to France, Switzerland, and Britain, to be educated in the arts and literature of the west.

Festival of the Inundation.] The great festival of the Egyptians is that which celebrates the inundation of the Nile. Mr Carne, while residing at Cairo, had an opportunity of witnessing this scene, and thus describes it. "The 16th of August," says Mr Carne, "was the day fixed on for the celebrated cutting of the bank of the Nile; a time of great rejoicing with the Egyptians, the inundation being now at its height. It is the custom for a vast number of people of different nations to assemble and pass the night near the appointed spot. We resolved to go and mingle among them, not doubting that something highly interesting would occur. We arrived at the place about eight at night, it being distant a few miles from the city. There was firing of cannon, illuminations in *their* way, and exhibitions of fire-works. The shores of the Nile for a long way down from Boulac, were covered with groupes of people, some seated beneath the large-spreading sycamores, smoking; others gathered around parties of Arabs, who were dancing with infinite gayety and pleasure, and uttering loud exclamations of joy, affording an amusing contrast to the passionless demeanour and tranquil features of their Moslem oppressors. After some time, we crossed to the opposite shore. The scene was here much more interesting. Ranks of people were closely seated on the shelving banks of the Nile; and behind them was a long line of persons selling various articles of fruit and eatables. A little to the left, amidst widely scattered groupes of trees, stood several tents, and temporary coffee-houses canopied over, and lighted with lamps. Perpetually moving over this scene,—both shores and river, and groupes of palms,—being illumined by the most brilliant moonlight,—were seen Albanian soldiers in their national costume, Nubians from the burning clime of further Egypt, Mamlouks, Arabs, and Turks. At a number of small sheds, each of which had its light or small fire, you might have meat, fish, &c. ready dressed. We entered one of the coffee-houses or large tents, to the top of which a row of lamps was suspended; and, the front being open, we could sip the refreshing beverage, and still enjoy the animated spectacle around. Being much fatigued, I wrapped my cloak around me, and slept for a couple of hours upon a rush mat on the floor, so soundly as to hear nothing of a loud and desperate quarrel between some Arabs and Albanians in the same tent; but there was little cause for uneasiness in any situation while my faithful Michelle was near; he knew so well the manners of these people, and possessed such perfect presence of mind. The night was wearing fast away, and leaving the tent, we again joined the various parties in the shade or on the shore; some feasting and dancing, others buried in sleep. The other side of the beautiful river, which shone like glass in the splendid light, still presented a gay appearance; lights moving to and fro among the trees, boats pushing off with new comers, and sounds of gayety, with the firing of musketry, being still heard.

"At last, day broke, and soon after, the report of a cannon announced that the event so ardently wished for was at hand. We proceeded to the spot, around which immense crowds were rapidly gathering. The high and shelving banks of the canal, into which the Nile was to be admitted,

were crowded with spectators. We obtained an excellent situation for observing the ceremony, by fortunately meeting with Osmia, a Scotch renegade, but a highly respectable man, and the confidential servant of Mr Salt. The kiaya-bey, the chief minister of the pasha, soon arrived with his guards, and took his seat on the summit of the opposite bank. A number of Arabs now began to dig down the dike which confined the Nile, the bosom of which was covered with a number of pleasure-boats, full of people, waiting to sail down the canal through the city. Already the mound was only partly demolished, when the increasing dampness and shaking of the earth induced the workmen to leave off. Several Arabs then plunged into the stream, and exerting all their strength to push down the remaining part, some openings were soon made, and the river broke through with irresistible violence. For some time, it was like the rushing of a cataract. According to custom, the kiaya-bey distributed a good sum of money, throwing it into the bed of the canal below, where a great many men and boys scrambled for it. Several of them had a sort of net, fastened on the top of a pole, to catch the money as it fell. It was an amusing scene, as the water gathered fast round them, to see them struggling and groping among the waves for the coin; but the violence of the torrent soon bore them away; and there were some who had lingered to the last, and now sought to save themselves by swimming, still buffeting the waves, and grasping at the money showered down, and diving after it as it disappeared. Unfortunately, this sport costs, every year, a few lives; and one young man was drowned this morning. The different vessels, long ere the fall had subsided, rushed into the canal and entered the city, their decks crowded with all ranks, uttering loud exclamations of joy.

"The overflowing of the Nile is the richest blessing of Heaven to the Egyptians: as it finds its way gradually into the various parts of the city and neighbourhood, the inhabitants crowd to drink of and wash in it, and rejoice in its progress. The vast square called the Birket, which, on our arrival, had presented a sad and dreary area, was now turned into a novel and beautiful scene, being covered with an expanse of water, out of the bosom of which arose the fine sycamore-trees. On one side of this square is the palace of the pasha; on the opposite side is the Coptic quarter: the palace of the chief of the Mamlouks, of a poor appearance, with some houses, fortifications, and ruins, forms the rest of this square. In walking round the city, and observing so many flat and naked parts, destitute of verdure, and encompassed with piles of ruins, one can hardly conceive how the waters can ever reach them; but every day, after the cutting of the bank, it is interesting to see how, silently and irresistibly, space after space is changed from a dreary, useless desert into a smiling bed of water, which brings health and abundance with it. The sounds of joy and festivity, of music and songs, are now heard all over the city, with cries of '*Allah! Allah!*' and thanks to the Divine bounty for so inestimable a blessing."

Festival of the Birth of Mahomet.] This Mahommedan festival is, of course, annually celebrated throughout Egypt. M. Champollion thus describes it in a letter from Cairo: "The great and imposing place of Ezbekieh, the centre of which is still occupied by the inundation, was crowded with people, looking at strollers, or female dancers, listening to singers, or surrounding splendid tents under which acts of devotion were performed. There, cross-legged Musselmans read chapters of the Koran in cadence; here, 300 devotees, also seated, but in parallel lines, and

continually moving the upper part of their bodies up and down, like puppets upon springs, sung in chorus *La-Allah-Elallah!* 'There is no other God than God.' Farther on, 400 enthusiasts, standing up in a circle, and touching each other's elbows, jumped up and down in time, and uttered the name of *Allah* from their exhausted lungs without ceasing, but in so lugubrious, so hollow a tone, that I never heard a more infernal chorus. This abominable growl seemed to proceed from the very depths of Tartarus. By the side of these religious demonstrations, musicians, courtezans, swings, round-about, and tumblers, were in full activity. This mixture of profane sports and religious practices, together with the strangeness of the figures, and the immense variety of costumes, formed an infinitely curious spectacle, which I shall never forget."

CHAP. VI.—GOVERNMENT—MILITARY AND NAVAL FORCE—REVENUE.

EGYPT, considered as a province of the Ottoman empire, is governed by a pasha or viceroy; but the present pasha, in many of his acts, disregards the grand seignior, and is every thing in Egypt,—sovereign, legislator, manufacturer, farmer, and money-changer. The form of government varies according to circumstances. There is no fundamental or traditional law recognized; and the only real organization which exists is simply administrative and financial. It is said that the present pasha has organized a kind of representative assembly at the seat of his government. About 160 functionaries of various ranks, and leading men in the different provinces, assembled by order of the pasha, at Cairo, in August 1829, when the measures of administration, and every thing relative to taxation, were submitted to them by the pasha's ministers. It is stated that the deliberations of this divan have hitherto been practically free, and that their suffrages have never been overruled. It is difficult to say what may be the result of all this. Any thing like a representative body and a free press can certainly not exist with any modification of despotism. The *kiahya-bey* is the chief of the administration; all complaints and civil actions are carried before him; and the *oriali* or agha of police, the *mohiteeb* or agha of subsistence, and the *bache-agma*, who is charged with the execution of the orders of government, are placed under the *kiahya-bey's* authority. The *cadi*, or grand judge whom the Porte sends to Cairo, holds merely an annual appointment; the notaries, or public writers, and the *cheyks* or lawyers are placed under his control. The police is vigilant, and the administration of justice highly summary. The court of the viceroy is composed of the *kiahya-bey*, the *khaynadar*, or chief financier, the *divan-effendi*, or foreign secretary, the *selihdar*, or master of the household, the *anakhtar-aghassi*, and the commandant of the citadel. The viceroy's body-guard consists of 1,500 men.

Military and Marine Force.] The pasha's forces have been estimated at 10,000 infantry, 9,000 cavalry, and 1,200 artillery; recent accounts have carried this force so high as 35,000 men. The troops, who are chiefly Arabians and Syrians, are commanded by beys, and the different divisions of the army are quartered in cantonments. The service is far from popular in Egypt; and is in every individual case compulsory. The naval force in 1826 consisted of 4 frigates, 11 corvettes, 30 brigs, and 13 gun-boats; but this navy was nearly annihilated in the fight of Navarino. The

navigation of the Nile is protected by gun-boats. A new arsenal and dockyard for vessels of the line, and frigates, is now building at Alexandria.¹⁵ *Revenue.*] The revenue of the pasha has been estimated at about 25,000,000 of piastres, or *takari*, a sum equal to about £6,000,000. It is drawn from taxes, customs, and tribute. By a recent order of the pasha, the offices of receivers and collectors of the taxes and customs have been limited to natives, to the exclusion of Armenians, Greeks, and Jews, who formerly farmed the revenue. An exchequer, it is reported, has been organized at Cairo.

CHAP. VII.—TOPOGRAPHY OF LOWER EGYPT.

Boundaries.] The boundaries of *Bakary*, *Bahari*, or Lower Egypt, are variously fixed by different geographers. Some assign to it the whole country to the fork of the Nile southwards, and from the boundaries of Tripoli on the W. to those of Syria and Arabia on the E. It is difficult, likewise, to fix the boundaries of the *cashefiks*, or provinces, into which Lower Egypt is divided. We shall follow the boundaries which Nouet has adopted in his map of Lower Egypt, and which has been followed by Ukert and several others. Nouet calls the district lying westwards from the Rosetta branch of the Nile *Bahireh*; the district lying between the two arms of the Nile *Garbieh*; and that lying eastwards from the Damietta branch *Charkieh*.

1st. DISTRICT OF BAHIREH.] This district is bounded on the N. W. and N. by the Mediterranean; on the E. by the district of Garbieh; and on the S. by the Libyan desert. Its northern parts are well-watered and fertile; its southern are uncultivated, and occupied by wild Arabs. The city of Alexandria, situated in this district, first demands our attention.

¹⁵ In 1815 the viceroy of Egypt first proclaimed a new organization of the army; but the revolt of his troops, and the plunder of Cairo, compelled him to relinquish his design. The murderous wars with the Wechabites which then ensued gave him facilities that afterwards ensured success to a project of which he had never for a moment lost sight. The rebellious chiefs, with the Turkish and Albanian soldiery, the declared enemies of innovation, were sent on expeditions to the Hedjaz, and a continued series of losses soon reduced their numbers to insignificance. The elements of a military school were now assembled at Eeneh; M. Dussap, a French medical officer, organized a military hospital; and barracks were constructed to receive the recruits. The negroes taken by Ismael Pasha in the provinces of Sennar and Cordofan arrived in crowds at Assouan. They quickly amounted to 4,000 men, to whom were added a number of Arab fellahs, who had voluntarily enrolled themselves, or who had been sent by the cashefs; these were allotted to different battalions, of which the frame-work had been previously formed. During this period the arsenal in the citadel of Cairo was organized, and a foundry, machinery for boring cannon, reverberating furnaces, and various other useful works, established under the superintendence of M. Gonon. The military staff school was inaugurated on the 15th October, 1825; the nucleus consisted of 18 officers. The beginnings were very difficult. It was necessary to be armed with patience and resolution for the experiment. The idle disposition of the Turks, their want of preparatory education, and the difficulty of understanding the language, were an accumulation of obstacles. In December 1825, some of the regiments received their colours. This ceremony took place agreeably to the Mahomedan custom. Every regiment was formed in square, facing inwards; the officers ranged in the centre. The imams thundered forth Arabian songs, extolling the valour of the Mussulmans, and assuring them that a true believer could singly destroy a hundred thousand Christians or Jews. After this formality, which made every one laugh, they read the directions for taking the oath. The general, Osman Bey, administered it to the colonels, and they to the lieutenant-colonels; and the colours being committed to the ensigns, were carried to the battalions. Then they slaughtered lambs, and each ensign steeped his right hand in the blood, and applied it to the corner of the flag. Salvos of artillery terminated the ceremony. The colours are white, bound with silver lace; and verses from the Koran, with the cipher of Mohamed-Ali are embroidered on them in gold letters.

City of Alexandria.] The ancient glory of Alexandria is still attested by its magnificent ruins. It is built on a sandy neck of land, which projects from the small isthmus by which the lake of Mareotis is separated from the sea. M. Langles has endeavoured to prove, that a city existed on this spot, under the name of *Racoudah*—which the Greeks transformed into *Rhacotis*—many ages before the arrival of Alexander's expedition. However this may be, the plan of Alexander's city was traced by one of his own engineers, and every resource of power and art was employed to render it worthy of the name of its founder. The breaking up of the empire of Alexander did not retard the progress of Alexandria to opulence and greatness. It became the capital of the Ptolemies,—a race of enlightened princes, who placed their chief glory in the encouragement of commerce and the sciences. They erected, on an island opposite to the mouth of the harbour, a *pharos*, or lighthouse, which was considered one of the wonders of the ancient world. Under their auspices, Alexandria engrossed the commerce of India, the grand object of ancient ambition. The goods being brought up the Red sea, were landed at Berenice; and being carried across to the river, were there embarked, and conveyed down to the city, which they reached by a canal, then communicating with the main branch of the Nile. Alexandria became at the same time the centre of all sciences connected with mathematics, astronomy, and geography; and those learned men only were valued who had been bred in its school. It was also famous for an immense library, surpassing all others of which antiquity could boast, founded by Ptolemy Soter, and prodigiously increased by his son Ptolemy Philadelphus. Even after its subjection to the Roman empire, Alexandria scarcely lost any of its splendour. It was considered second only to Rome; it still supported its reputation for science, and became a grand focus of political and ecclesiastical factions. It continued also to be the channel by which the commodities of India, Arabia, and Eastern Africa were transported to Europe. According to Pliny, it was about 15 miles in circuit, and contained a population of 800,000 citizens, and as many slaves. Alexandria, however, received a fatal blow, when, in 640, it was reduced by the caliph Omar, and subjected to the Saracen yoke. It is generally believed, that then its immense library, the boast of antiquity, was reduced to ashes: Omar remarking, that if it contained matter contrary to the doctrines of Mahomet, it was pernicious,—if not, it was at least superfluous. In the report made to the caliph by the Saracen general, it is stated to have contained 4,000 palaces, 4,000 baths, 400 theatres and public edifices, 12,000 shops, and a population which may be estimated from its including 40,000 Jews. The caliphs transported the seat of government to Cairo; and Alexandria, from this period, gradually decayed. The discovery of the passage to India by the Cape finally destroyed its commercial importance. No traveller has described in so lively a manner as Volney, the aspect of ancient Alexandria. "In our country (says he) ruins are an object of curiosity. Scarcely can we discover, in unfrequented places, some ancient castle, whose decay announces rather the desertion of its master, than the wretchedness of the neighbourhood. In Alexandria, on the contrary, we no sooner leave the new town, than we are astonished at the sight of an immense extent of ground overspread with ruins. The earth is covered with the remains of lofty buildings destroyed; whole fronts crumbled down, roofs fallen in, battlements decayed, and the stones disfigured and corroded by saltpetre. The traveller passes over a vast plain, furrowed with trenches, pierced with wells, divided by walls in

ruins, covered over with ancient columns and modern tombs, amid palm trees and nopals, and where no living creature is to be met with, but owls, bats, and jackals. The inhabitants accustomed to this scene, behold it without emotion; but the stranger, in whom the recollection of ancient ages is revived by the novelty of the objects around him, feels a sensation, which not unfrequently dissolves him into tears, inspiring reflections which fill his heart with sadness, while his soul is elevated by their sublimity." The greater part of this area is surrounded with a high and double wall, generally ascribed to the Saracens. We subjoin Dr Richardson's account of these ruins, and of the Alexandrian catacombs, in a note.¹⁶

¹⁶ "Impatient to explore the venerable ground, we landed at an early hour, and having passed through the Khan, where a herd of hungry camels were baying, we mounted our asses, passed without the gate of the (new) city, and entered immediately on the field of ruins. Before us, in the centre of the scene, enlivened by a few spreading palms, stood a Greek and a Capuchin convent, with a buffalo turning a water-wheel; a round column rose on our right, and a tall obelisk on our left; but, excepting these, all was height alternating with hollow, mound rising over mound, with, here and there, the end of a beautiful column, or the angle of an enormous stone, cropping out, to break the continuity of the drifted sand, unconsolidated by aught of vegetable growth. We directed our course to the gate of the Capuchin convent, where we found the superior, a venerable old man, a native of Genoa, passing here under the name of Padre Carlo, who politely offered to show us the site of the celebrated church of St Athanasius. It lies to the N.E. of the convent, and is quite contiguous. The bases of many columns of ordinary magnitude marked the remains of an extensive edifice; but, if fragments of colossal grandeur exist, they are all buried in the sand. He said, that the French had made excavations in the site of this celebrated cathedral, and had discovered something of great value, but his memory did not serve him to state what it was; not even though the word sarcophagus was whispered in his ear. Close by lay three highly-finished columns of syenite, or large-grained Egyptian granite, which probably formed part of the same building. The reverend superior, however, informed me, that these belonged to the baths of Cleopatra, to whom, I afterwards found, every thing is attributed, of which the real owner is unknown. . . . Continuing the route which the friar had pointed out, I came to the Persian wheel, which was drawn by two buffaloes and raised water to fill the cisterns for the supply of the city. This can be done only once a-year, and but for a short time, when the Nile is at its height; but the cisterns, being then filled, are sufficient to supply the city with excellent water all the year round. The same was the case with ancient Alexandria; and the same cisterns which held the water for the ancient city, also contain it for the modern. A great part of Alexandria stood upon arches, under which the cisterns were formed: these arches still exist, and are stated to be partly Greek and partly Roman. Continuing the route, I came in a few minutes to two beautiful obelisks that once adorned the palace of the Ptolemies. One still stands erect; the other lies prostrate; but both are entire, except a small disintegration from the action of the weather on the side towards the south-east. They are covered with hieroglyphics on every side: the tablets refer them to the temples and statues in Heliopolis and Thebes. They are about 64 feet high, and 8 feet square at the base. The one that lies prostrate, is mounted on props, and seems as if prepared for a journey: accident alone has prevented its being in England. Having surveyed the obelisks, I regained the beaten track, and pursued my way to the Rosetta gate, along what seemed to have been the principal street. On each side lay rows of stately columns of marble, all overturned. These are, probably, the remains of that magnificent colonnade that passed between the gates of the sun and moon, adorning each side of the principal street. In the numerous excavations, I observed many deep foundations, arches, and walls of what had been stately buildings; but could not be certain in referring any of them to structures of particular note. A little way to the right of our path, two mounds stand pre-eminent, distinguished from the others by their magnitude alone. Thither I was directing my course, but the *boureichi* informed me, that these were two Turkish forts, and must not be approached. The largest, from its commanding situation and distance from the great harbour, is probably the successor of the *Panison Turbinatum*, from the summit of which the whole town was distinctly visible. The military eye might suspect their present use; but the ordinary observer would not find any thing in their appearance to deter his approach. Passing out by the Rosetta gate, and turning to the left, I proceeded over the ruins towards the Lochian promontory. The palace, which occupied about one-third of the town, stretched along in this direction. The hollow sound beneath our feet indicating the nature of the mounds over which we were passing; and the sand which had poured down in several places, opened a vista into large subterraneous chambers, which it was impossible to examine without much excavation. Detached masses of stone and lime, and brick and lime, of Roman manufacture, lay around in great confusion; and all along this eastern side of the Great Harbour,

From the ancient we turn to the new Alexandria; which, even in its state of decay, is still to Europeans the most interesting of the cities of Egypt. It is built chiefly along the coast, and has been surrounded by Ali Pasha with walls, but occupies only a small portion of the space enclosed within the Saracenic walls. The modern town is thus described by Dr Richardson, who visited Egypt in 1816-18: "Alexandria is surrounded with a high stone wall, entered by four gates, and contains about 14,000 inhabitants. The streets are narrow, dirty, and irregular. The houses

ruined houses are seen extending a great way into the sea, which were probably merged under the surface of the water, at the time of the fatal earthquake in which Alexandria lost 50,000 of her citizens. The island of Antirrhodos, that lay in front of the harbour, memorable for the *Timonium* of Mark Anthony, and other buildings, is no where to be seen: it is reported to have been washed away, but, most probably, disappeared in the same dreadful catastrophe. Stretching on to the point of the harbour, there is a small Turkish fort, occupying the site of the little Pharos; but it is now deserted and in ruins. Retracing my steps, I passed by the Rosetta gate, and proceeded round the ancient walls of the town, which are equally buried in sand with the houses which they surrounded, and are known only by their sudden and precipitous rise from the adjacent ground. Having travelled about a mile without meeting with any thing worthy of notice, I passed by a low part in the wall, and came into a large open square, probably the Gymnasium: it is covered with sand, and surrounded on all sides with high mounds. Adjoining it, on the north-west, rises the majestic column which, now that the inscription has been read, we must call Diocletian's pillar. It is elevated upon a pedestal about twelve feet high, which is much injured. The shaft is round, and rises to about the height of 90 feet. It is surmounted with a Corinthian capital of about 10 feet. The column is one block of large-grained granite, the same as that found at Esouan: it is nine feet in diameter, with a perceptible *entasis*, without hieroglyphics, remarkably well cut, and very little injured by the effects of time.—About a mile to the west of the column, and without the walls of the ancient city, are the Catacombs, nearly in as ruinous a condition as the city whose dead they were intended to receive. The real entrance to these subterranean abodes is unknown: the present entrance passes off from the sea, like the entrance into a grotto. On arriving at the spot, we paused in the narrow passage to light our torches, and to perform the customary prelusive ceremony of firing off a musket, as well as the more uncommon one of sounding a bugle-horn, to announce to the jackals and bats, the disgusting tenants of these abodes, that they were about to be visited by human beings. Then, each of us being armed with a lighted candle, preceded by our guide, we crawled along on our hands and feet for about twenty yards under the horizontal stratum of calcareous rock. The first chamber that we entered into, was about ten feet square, and rather low in the roof: it contained a number of bones, and was pervaded by a damp unwholesome smell. The next chamber that was entered, was larger and higher in the roof, contained many more bones, and sarcophagi cut in the side of the floor for the reception of the dead, and was equally damp with the first. The third chamber was half full of sand, and showed the entrance into a fourth, which may be called the state-chamber: the door was adorned with Doric pilasters and a pediment in the centre of which was a coarse half-finished globe, surmounted with a crescent. This chamber is round, with three recesses, one fronting the door, and one on each hand: it contained no bones, no sarcophagi, and very little sand. The other chambers that we entered, were so choked up with sand, that we frequently moved on in contact with the ceiling. As there was nothing to be discovered here without immense labour, we soon became tired of crawling over sand without any object to animate the pursuit, and, retracing our way, regained the open air, without having been regaled with the sight of a jackal or the flutter of a bat. The form of these chambers, the doors, pilasters, and stone troughs, show them to be entirely Grecian. In size and proportion, they are fully equal to the Egyptian catacombs in other parts of the country: but, in the sitting up and decorations, or even the preservation, they are not to be named in comparison with the latter. All along the shore of this western harbour are many sepulchres of inconsiderable note; some of them under the rock, many that are merely cut into it, and open to the air, and many covered with water under the level of the sea. Many baths were also exhibited to us in this quarter, which were named, as usual, the Baths of Cleopatra; they are small, incommensurable, and of difficult entrance; and those that we were shown are of a description far too inferior to countenance the supposition that they had ever been used as baths by that luxurious queen, or any of her royal predecessors. Their exposed and dreary situation, by the margin of the tombs, rather points them out as the common baths for the plebeian multitude of the luxurious Alexandrians. The celebrated lighthouse that occupied the extremity of the western side of the Great Harbour, is now succeeded by an insignificant fortress; and on that spot whence a hospitable ray once issued to invite the industrious mariner to anchor in a peaceful harbour, a sullen Mussulman now smokes his pipe, and looking from the embrasures, insults the Christian, and turns him from the gate with disdain."

are from three to four stories high, strong and substantial, but of a remarkably dull appearance, from their having few windows to the streets. The bazars are few, but are amply provided with cloth, tobacco, sherbet, and vegetables. The wharf presents an active scene of ships building, vessels taking in their cargoes, with heaps of grain and bales of goods piled up along the shore. But the European stranger is particularly struck with the crowds of naked porters that ply their busy task, and the swarms of horrid beggars that constantly importune him and harrow up his feelings. During the season of filling the cisterns (September), the traveller can hardly stop for a moment without being jostled by a leathern bag of water, hanging on the lank sides of a raw-boned camel, towering along in her majestic pace to deposit it in the reservoirs. One troop after another occupies the streets during the whole of the day. Crowds of human beings, half naked, parade the streets also, with leathern sacks full of water, suspended from their shoulders, and resting upon their naked back and breast. Sometimes, with a cup in their hands, they call upon you to purchase a draught; at other times, they pass quietly on and deposit their burden in the reservoir, along with their fellow-labourers the camels." The annual ravages of the plague usually commence at Alexandria about the 20th of February, and cease towards the latter end of June.

Rosetta.] Rosetta, situated on an eminence upon the western bank of the Bolbitine branch of the Nile, 4 miles above its mouth, and about 40 miles distant from Alexandria, is also a place of considerable importance. The houses are built of brick, for the most part plastered over and white washed. The streets are narrow, and the houses project so as nearly to meet at the top,—an arrangement which, though it gives coolness to the narrow streets, renders them very gloomy. Rosetta is remarkable for the beauty of its environs: being completely embosomed among date, banana, orange, sycamore, and other trees. Those fruits which, even in the most favoured countries of Europe, cannot be reared without considerable attention, flourish here almost without culture, and in the utmost luxuriance. The orange, the lemon, the pomegranate, and the hennee, blend the fragrance of their perfume; and the lofty palm towering over all, adds magnificence to the landscape. The city has upwards of 50 caravansaries, and about 10,000 inhabitants, of whom a very considerable number are foreigners. It furnishes red cotton yarn, dressed flax, linen, and silk-dyes for the dresses common in the East, and also a little rice. The famous trilingual stone—now in the British Museum—to which the learned world, as already explained, is indebted for the ingenious discoveries of Dr Young and M. Champollion, respecting the phonetic use of hieroglyphic characters in writing proper names, was discovered in this city.

The Valley of Natron.] The Natron valley is one of the most remarkable physical features in this district of Egypt. It forms an angle of about 44° westwards with the magnetic meridian, and contains none of the species of rocks which are found scattered about in other parts of Egypt. There is a series of six lakes in this valley, the banks of which, as well as the surfaces of the waters, are covered with crystallised muriate and sulphate of soda, and carbonate of soda or natron. The water of one of them is red like blood. On digging eastward, from the locality of the lakes, fresh spring water is obtained. The natron is collected by the inhabitants of Terraneh, a town on the Nile, and sent by them to Rosetta, whence it is transmitted over the country. There are four Coptic convents in this valley, which are said to have been founded in the 4th century. Their inmates are miserably poor, and still more miserably ignorant.

A ridge of hills divides the valley of Natron from the *Bahar Belawa* or *Bahar-el-Farigh*, on the westwards. The valley has a general breadth of 8 miles, and is said to stretch to the Mediterranean. It serves as a defence against the encroaching sands of the Western desert. The vegetation in these valleys has a wild and dreary aspect; the palms are mere bushes, and bear no fruit.

2d. DISTRICT OF GARBIEH.] This district comprehends the greater part of the Delta. It is bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean; on the E. by the district of Charkieh, from which it is separated by the Damietta branch of the Nile; on the S. by Charkieh; and on the W. by the district of Bahireh. It consists of one vast plain, everywhere crossed by canals; the southern part is well cultivated; extensive tracts in the north are sterile and desolate.

Towns.] *Fouah* is situated on the right bank of the Nile, at the entrance of the Alexandrine canal. It has a more comfortable appearance than is commonly to be met with in the cities of Egypt; the houses are large, and there are 14 mosques. When Rosetta became the entrepot of the commerce of the Nile, Fouah lost much of its former splendour. Some geographers suppose that this town occupies the site of the ancient *Nawcratis*; others, that of *Metelie*.—*Ramanieh* is a place of some importance as a military station.—A short distance to the S. of Ramanieh are the supposed ruins of *Sais*, the ancient metropolis of the Delta. We subjoin in a note M. Champollion's interesting account of the catacombs or necropolis existing here.¹⁷—*Menouf*, a large village, stands on a canal which intersects the Delta, and communicates with both branches of the Nile.

¹⁷ We bent our course towards a large inclosure, which we had descried on the plain ever since the morning. The inundation, which still covered part of the land, compelled us to make several windings, and we passed an Egyptian necropolis, built with unbaked bricks, the surface of which is covered with broken pottery, amongst which I picked up several fragments of small funeral figures. The large inclosure can only be entered by a modern door, which has evidently been cut through the wall. I shall not attempt to describe the impressions produced upon me, when, after having cleared the door, I suddenly perceived before me enormous masses, upwards of 80 feet in height, looking like rocks rent by lightning, or tossed up by earthquakes. I ran to the centre of this gigantic circumvallation, and then recognised Egyptian constructions in unbaked bricks, 16 inches long, 7 wide, and 5 in thickness; this also was a necropolis, and it explains how the towns of Lower Egypt, and these at a distance from mountains, disposed of their mummies—a point which had hitherto created some curiosity and embarrassment. This second necropolis of Sais, in the colossal ruins of which several stories of small funeral chambers still exist, (the number must have been infinite,) is not less than 1400 feet in length, and nearly 500 in breadth. On the sides of some of the chambers there are still many vases of baked clay, in which the intestines of the dead were deposited. At the bottom of one of these we found bitumen. Right and left of this necropolis there are two mounds, on one of which we also found fragments of rose and grey granite, of fine red sandstone, and of white marble, called here 'marble of Thebes.' On the latter, legends of the Pharaohs are sculptured. I have secured several fine specimens. The dimensions of the great inclosure which contained these edifices, are really surprising. The parallelogram, the smaller sides of which are not less than 1440 feet, and the larger ones 2160, is more than 7000 feet in circumference. The height of the wall may be estimated at 80 feet; and we found its thickness, by actual measurement, to be not less than 54! We might have counted in it large bricks by millions. This gigantic circumvallation appears to me to have contained the principal sacred edifices of Sais. All those of which the ruins still exist, were places of burial; and, according to the indications afforded by, Herodotus, the tombs of Apries, and of his ancestors, the Saitic kings, must have been in the construction which I visited, while the monument of the usurper Amasis, must have stood on the other side. That part which fronts the Nile may have inclosed the great temple of Neith, the chief goddess of Sais; and we have fired shots over its ruins at her consecrated owls, which the medals of Sais, as well as those of its daughter, Athens, still display in a manner which proclaims the certainty of their relationship. Within a few hundred toises of the angle, near the forced door, there are several mounds which cover another necropolis. It has been that of men of rank and distinction. Excavations have already been made in it, and I have seen an enormous sarcophagus, of green basalt, which was that of a guardian of the temples under Psammeticus II.

The walls are surrounded by the canal. The houses are mean, the streets crooked and narrow, and the inhabitants, amounting to about 5,000, are employed chiefly in the manufacture of mats, which are made of rushes from the Natron valley. Without the walls are large mounds of ruins and earth, and in the vicinity are fields of wheat, barley, maize, lentiles, and lupins.—*Mansourah* is finely situated on an eminence near the Nile; it is a modern town, built partly of ruins and partly of bricks. It is large, with numerous mosques; and is famous for the misfortunes and the fortitude of Louis IX., who was taken prisoner under its walls in 1256. It has some traffic in rice and sal-ammoniac, and from its vast chicken-ovens supplies all the neighbourhood with poultry. Eight or 9 hours' distance from Mansourah is a celebrated place of pilgrimage called *Sette Gemiane*, after a great saint of the Copts, which is visited every spring by many devotees.—*Salahieh*, built by Saladin, stands on the eastern boundary of the cultivated land of Egypt, and contains about 6,000 inhabitants, whose squalid appearance betokens the utmost wretchedness. It has a fortress and a mosque entirely of stone, with a lofty minaret.—*Menzaleh* is a large town on the lake of the same name.—*Tanta* or *Tentah* is reckoned the most populous town in the Delta. A famous saint, Seyd Ahmed el Bedaoung, who had done many wonders in his life-time, is buried here; and at the time of the summer-solstice and spring-equinox, his tomb is visited by upwards of 50,000 pilgrims.—*Semennoud*, the ancient *Sebeastyus*, is the most important town between Cairo and Damietta. It is famous for its pigeons, and conducts a large trade by means of the adjacent canals; and has a population of 5,000 souls.—*Mehallet* is a populous town on a navigable canal.

Damietta.] The *Dimyat* of the Arabs, situated between the eastern branch of the Nile and the lake of Menzaleh, about 10 miles above its junction with the sea, appears to be next to Alexandria in importance and population. It contains vast magazines of rice, chiefly belonging to the pasha. Its general appearance—though it is dignified by no remains of antiquity—is beautifully picturesque. The Baroness Minutoli affirms that it reminded her of Venice. The houses all white, and generally very high, are built in the form of a crescent, along a bend of the river, upon the right bank, each having its own little port to facilitate the approach of vessels. On the opposite side is a peninsula with the village of Selanieh, half seen amid a grove of sycamore and palm-trees. The country around Damietta is perhaps the most fertile and best cultivated in Egypt, and, with the Nile and the lake Menzaleh, affords to the Damiettans, from their high terraced roofs, the most delightful views that can well be imagined. Damietta maintains an extensive intercourse with Syria, Cyprus, and other parts of the Turkish empire. Though surrounded on every side by water, the air is considered as very salubrious, and the children of foreigners, who, it appears, have in Cairo scarcely any chance of reaching maturity, are reared here without any peculiar danger or difficulty. The population is estimated by Savary at 80,000, by others at only 30,000. Damietta was taken by assault in the 6th crusade; of its population of 70,000 at that time, 3,000 only were the relics. The city however which the Christians captured, was 5 miles to the north of the modern, and then called *Tumiathis*. Damietta is represented by Ukert as exceedingly unhealthy; but most other writers give a different account of it.

Isthmus of Suez.] The isthmus of Suez is a tract of land of small elevation, consisting of limestone rocks, with strata of sandstone and silex.

It is covered with sand, and in some parts with stagnant water. On the N. it presents the appearance of a large plain, broken here and there by downs; in the middle a series of hills rise in successive terraces; on the E. and S. E. the mountain-ridges of Arabia and Egypt bound the plain of the isthmus. The lake *Birket-el-Ballah*, which stands in communication with lake Menzaleh, and the lakes of *Timsah*, and the Bitter lakes, form a series of basins, running N. and S. along the isthmus. This tract of land has a general declination from the Red sea to the Mediterranean; a similar declination exists towards the Delta and Nile. The waters of the Red sea would flow into and fill the almost dry and deep basin of the Bitter lakes but for the intervention of a sandy isthmus scarcely 3 feet above the level of the Red sea. The breadth of the isthmus in a straight line is nearly 72 miles.

MARMARICA.] The ancient district of Marmarica extends from Alexandria to the gulf of Bomba. The northern part consists of a strip of arable soil lying along the coast, and not reaching farther inland than from 10 to 15 leagues. In proceeding southward towards the Ammonian oasis, nothing is seen but an arid desert. The tract of arable land is divided into a series of plains by the hills which cross it. These gradually rise in elevation as they recede from the coast. "The soil of Marmarica bears throughout," says M. Pacho—"the traces of having undergone great physical changes, as its actual state of devastation presents the picture of human revolutions. Marine shells incrusting in the rock, madrepores scattered on the hills, basaltic and granitic fragments rolled down upon the secondary rocks, and a disorderly assemblage of minerals of various descriptions, form the general appearance which this country exhibits. Painful is the impression which it makes upon the mind of the traveller. The continued nakedness of the soil renders him more sensible of the annihilation of the towns, and the disappearance of their inhabitants. He sees nothing before him but grey plains and arid hills; he proceeds, and still the scene wears the same aspect; and in the midst of this vast picture, destitute alike of life and colour, the presence of man is faintly indicated to him by the distant bleating of flocks and the dark spots of the Arab tents." The most fertile spots are the low places, which longest retain the waters left by the rains, and the table-land on the summit of the hills, the elevation of which secures them against the encroachment of the sands. The scanty vegetation consists chiefly of different species of saltwort, particularly the *salsola vermiculata*. After the early rains, foliaceous lichens and other cryptogamia cover the soil; the climate of Marmarica being entirely distinguished in this respect from that of Egypt. In the ruined cisterns and quarries which are scattered here and there throughout the alluvial land, some wild fig and carob-trees find nourishment. The hare is frequently met with; and is here hunted by the Arab with the *soulouk*, a species of greyhound. Troops of gazelles are occasionally seen in the valleys. The *cerastes* takes refuge with the scorpion and lizard, from the rains of winter, in the ruined cisterns. Insects are numerous. The only land-birds are birds of prey; the halcyon and the stork occur on the coast. Yet this dreary region exhibits many traces of having been once occupied by a civilized and even numerous population.—*Abousir*, the ancient *Taposiris*, once famed for its vines and gardens, is now a heap of ruins, all purely Greek, Roman, or Arabian, the monuments of this country being of no high antiquity. Five hours to the S.E. of Abousir are the ruins of an ancient town now called *Boumnah*. In many places in the oases, ruins and monuments are seen isolated in

the midst of the sandy ocean.—The modern inhabitants of Marmarica are entirely Bedouin. The total population M. Pachon estimates at 38,000 souls.

CHAP. VIII.—TOPOGRAPHY OF MIDDLE EGYPT.

City of Cairo.] Boulak is the port of Cairo where the vessels lie that come from the lower part of the Nile. It extends along the banks of the river, and exhibits an animated scene. In the harbour of old Cairo the vessels lie which have arrived from Upper Egypt. From this place a fine wide road leads to the new city, or Grand Cairo as it is called by way of eminence. "To describe the interior of this city," says Dr Clarke, "would only be to repeat what has often been said of all Turkish towns, with this difference, that there is not, perhaps, upon earth, a more dirty metropolis. Every place is covered with dust; and its particles are so minute, that it rises into all the courts and chambers of the city. The streets, destitute of any kind of pavement, appear like a series of narrow, dusty lanes between walls. By means of the canal which intersects the city, and which was now (Aug. 12) filled with its muddy water, we visited a great part of Cairo in a boat. The prodigious number of gardens give to it so pleasing an appearance, and the trees growing in these gardens are so new to the eyes of a European, that, for a moment, he forgets the innumerable abominations of the dirtiest city in the world. The most beautiful among them, is the *mimosa lebbek*, which grows upon the banks of the canal, its long, weeping branches pendent to the surface of the water. The gardens are filled with turtle-doves, whose melancholy notes suit the solitary disposition of the Turks. The houses of the city are larger and better built than those of Constantinople, the foundations being of stone, and the superstructure of brick and mortar; but they have the same gloomy appearance externally; the interior consists principally of timber. In the best houses, the taste shown in decorating the apartments, is of the kind called Arabesque. Where the windows are glazed, (they more frequently exhibit an open lattice-work,) they are ornamented with coloured glass, representing landscapes and animals, particularly the lion. No writer has paid any attention to the origin of the painted glass in Cairo; yet, the glaziers of this city seem to have preserved an art which is supposed to be imperfectly known in Europe. From the open terraces in many of the principal houses, and from the flat roofs of all, the view is extended over the numerous gardens of the city. But every thing is disfigured and rendered uncomfortable by dust. All the foliage is covered with it, and the boasted vegetation of Cairo, instead of displaying that pleasing verdure with which Europeans, and particularly Englishmen, fill their imaginations when reading descriptions of a city crowded with groves and gardens, rather exhibits the uninviting and uniform colour of the desert. That its gardens, from the novelty of the plants found in them, are sometimes pleasing to the eye of a European, may be admitted; and it has been acknowledged, that the plantations adorning the sides of the canal, may for a short time render a stranger unmindful of the filth and wretchedness of the city. But the boasted lakes, or rather mud-pools, into which the waters of the river are received, particularly the famous *Esbekier Birket*, would certainly be considered nuisances in any part of the civilized world. The dam of the canal had been cut about three days when we arrived; and every one was

still telling of the rejoicings and ceremonies which that event had occasioned. We entered the canal in our *djerm* about noon, and after making the tour of nearly the whole city by means of the canal and a series of dikes filled with the muddy water of the river, we at last entered the Esbequier lake at six o'clock, p. m. Having crossed this piece of water, we landed, and went to the house we had hired, observing every where the same wretched appearances of dirt and degradation. How Europeans describing Cairo, can call any thing magnificent which is surpassed even by the poorest parts of Venice, is really surprising." Nevertheless M. Champollion maintains that Cairo has been most unjustly abused: "I find myself,"—he writes in 1829—"very comfortable in it, and those streets of eight or ten feet only in width, appear to me well calculated against excessive heat. Without being paved, they are remarkable for their cleanliness. Cairo is a monumental city; the greater part of the houses are of stone, and have sculptured doors in the Arab taste. A multitude of mosques, more elegant the one than the other, covered with Arabesques in the best style, and ornamented with minarets admirable for their splendour and grace, give to this capital an imposing and varied effect. I have traversed it in every direction: and yet, I every day discover new edifices, of which I did not even suspect the existence. Thanks to the dynasty of the Thouloumides, the Fatimite caliphs, the Ayoubite sultans, and the Baharite mamalukes, Cairo is still a city of the Arabian Nights, though barbarism has destroyed, or suffered to be destroyed, in a great measure, the delightful productions of Arabian arts and civilization. My first devotions have been paid in the mosque of Thouloun, an edifice of the 9th century, and a model of elegance and of grandeur, which, though half in ruins, cannot be too much admired. While I was examining its door, an old shiekh proposed to me to visit the interior. I eagerly accepted, and leaped through the first door, but was suddenly stopped on reaching the second. It was not lawful to enter the holy place with shoes or boots on. I had boots but no stockings, and the difficulty puzzled me. However, I threw off my boots, and borrowing a handkerchief from my janissary and another from my Nubian servant Mohammed, and wrapping them round each foot, I soon found myself on the marble pavement of the sacred edifice. It is, undoubtedly, the finest monument of Arab architecture now in Egypt. The delicacy of the sculptures is incredible, and the series of arched porticoes produces a beautiful effect. I shall not at present describe the other mosques, nor the tombs of the caliphs and the Mamaluke sultans, which form around Cairo a second city, still more magnificent than the ancient capital." The inhabitants of Cairo amuse themselves with feats of gymnastics, and singing, and dancing. According to M. Langles the population of Cairo in 1810 was 262,700 souls. The pasha has established a line of telegraphs from Cairo to Alexandria—a distance of 120 miles—which convey intelligence in 40 minutes.

Tombs of the Mamalukes and Caliphs.] Not far from Cairo, in the way to the desert, is the burial-place of the Mamalukes, the most splendid cemetery in Egypt. "Here repose the beys, with their followers, for many generations. The forms of the tombs are various, and often magnificent: over the sepulchres rise domes, supported by slender marble columns, and some of these are finely carved. The tombs of the caliphs are distant a mile and a half in another direction from the city, amidst the sand: they are beautiful monuments, in the light and elegant style of the Saracenic architecture, and are in a very perfect state of preservation. They are built of

fine limestone, and are lofty square buildings with domes and minarets, some of the latter of exquisite workmanship." Sir F. Henniker says: "The cemeteries form a novel and not unpleasant appearance. The desert is studded with tombs, mosques, and mausolea. These mansions of the dead would be preferable to the habitations of the living, were it not that the air is polluted: for nothing disturbs the solitude, except on a Friday, when the houses of mourning resound with the *ullula* of Cairo women."

Ghizeh.] On the W. bank of the Nile appears the city of Djizah or Ghizeh, pleasantly shaded by groves of sycamores, dates, and olives. To the W. of the town stand the celebrated pyramids.

THE PYRAMIDS.] The monuments of the ancient grandeur of Egypt have a character of immensity that sets them above that of all other nations. Nineveh, Babylon, and other Asiatic capitals once famed for their wealth and splendour, and for the congregated nations that crowded their innumerable streets, have either totally disappeared, or their sites are now distinguishable only by shapeless piles of rubbish. Even the master-pieces of Grecian and Roman architecture have reached us in a very shattered and imperfect condition; but the edifices of Egypt, which ascend to an era prior to any record of authentic history, bear scarcely any marks of the thousands of years that have passed over them, and still display to us entire the arts and the powers of the first generations of men. They do not indeed exhibit that perfection of taste and skill on account of which the works of Greece have become models to succeeding ages; they appear to aim rather to astonish by their immensity; they rise as it were above the works of man, and rival the grandeur of nature.

All the world is more or less acquainted with these immense masses, the *Pyramids of Ghizeh*, upon which the hand of Time seems to have hitherto made little or no impression, and which, for aught that yet appears to the foresight of man, may yet endure for as many thousands of years as have elapsed since their erection. They are seen at a distance of 30 miles, and seem to retire in proportion as they are approached. From the moment that you leave Ghizeh until you reach them, they seem continually near to you. You would think that you had but a narrow field to cross to reach their base when you have yet 4 miles to ride. "Their stupendous height," says Volney,—"the steep declivity of their sides,—their enormous solidity,—the distant ages they recall to memory,—the recollection of the labour they must have cost, and the reflection that these huge rocks are the work of man, so diminutive and feeble, who crawls at their feet, lost in wonder, awe, humiliation and reverence,—altogether impress the mind of the spectator in a manner not to be described."

Pyramid of Cheops.] The pyramids stand upon a bed of rocks 150 feet above the desert. The loftiest is called the pyramid of *Cheops*, from the prince by whom it is supposed to have been founded. Travellers are not agreed with respect to its height. Its base, according to the careful measurement of Greaves—which seems to be generally admitted as the most accurate that has yet been made—consists of a square of 746 feet, covering a little more than 11 acres of ground; its perpendicular height is 499 feet. It is ascended on the outside by an uninterrupted flight of steps, from 2½ to 4 feet high, diminishing in height as they approach the top, which is 32 feet square according to Clarke. The breadth is proportioned to the height, in such a manner that a line stretched from the top to the bottom would touch the angle of every step. According to Diodorus Siculus, this build-



THE CATHEDRAL OF DUBLIN.

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ing employed 360,000 workmen, according to Herodotus 100,000, during 20 years." Herodotus tells us, "The great pyramid was covered with polished stones, perfectly well jointed, the smallest of which was 30 feet long." According to Diodorus, "the great pyramid is built of stones, very difficult of workmanship, but of an eternal duration." Pliny says, that it "is formed of stones brought from the quarries of Arabia. It is not far from the village of Busiria (which still exists under the name of Bouair), where those persons reside who are so skilful as to climb up to the top." From these quotations we are tempted to suppose that Herodotus, Diodorus, and Pliny, were little better acquainted with the pyramids than Shaw, Thevenot, Denon, or Savary, not to mention Salt, Caviglia, or Belzoni; and that these gigantic productions of art were as much the subjects of wonder, and their origin and uses equally unknown, to the ancient Greeks and Romans as to us. Whatever may have been the state of the great pyramid in the days of Herodotus, at present the external part appears to be composed of great square masses of a fine grained carbonate of lime, of a light brown colour,—stones which have been cut from a rock running along the Nile, where the excavations from which they have been taken are still apparent. They are compacted together solely by their own weight, without lime, lead, or cramps of any metal. In the body of the pyramid, however, which is full of irregular stones, it has been found necessary to employ a mortar composed of lime, earth, and clay. These stones are not nearly so hard as might have been expected from the great length of time that the edifice has remained entire. Some of them are even rotten; and their preservation appears chiefly owing to the extreme dryness of the climate. "He who has stood on the summit of this most ancient, and yet most mighty monument of man's power and pride," it has been remarked, "and has looked round to the far horizon where Libya and Arabia lie silent, and has seen at his feet, the land of Egypt dividing their dark solitudes with a narrow vale beautiful and green, the mere enamelled setting of one solitary, shining river,—must receive impressions which he can never convey, for he can never define them to himself."

The pyramids have all the appearance of solid masses, and it seems to have been the intention of the founders that the few openings they contain should remain perpetually closed. The ingenuity of successive ages,

"Whichever of these estimates be nearest the truth, it is certain that one of the most powerful monarchies of remote antiquity applied its whole disposable resources in the construction of this enormous pile. Upon this supposition the following comparison of the general mechanical power of the monarchy of the Egyptian Cheops and of Great Britain at the present day has been instituted by a writer in the *Quarterly Review*, vol. 22d. According to M. Dupin, the whole volume of the pyramids is equal to about 4,000,000 of cubic metres; and their weight is 10,400,000 tons, which raised to the height of 11 metres from the bottom of the quarries to the surface of the earth, and of 40 more as the mean elevation above the base—in all 60 metres above their original level—give 624,000,000 tons raised to the height of one metre. Now the steam-engines employed in England in 1820 were equal to the force of 320,000 horses, and could raise 962,800,000 tons to the height of one metre in 24 hours; the steam-engines of England therefore could have raised the materials of the great pyramid out of the quarries, conveyed them to their present place, and heaped them up in their present form, in less than three-fourths of one day. Therefore the mechanical power of British steam-engines was in 1820—and it has much increased since that time—to that of the Egyptian monarchy of Cheops, inversely as the times necessary to each to perform the same task: that is to say, as 20 years to 18 hours, or about 10,000 times as great! "Neither would it be unfair to deduce from this single fact," adds the journalist, "that the general power of the two monarchies—including that which is the source of power, knowledge—was, if not exactly in this ratio, at least in a proportion which could not widely differ from it,—let us, with great moderation, say one-fourth as great; that is, it is more than probable that the power of England is, at this moment, 2500 times as great as that of Egypt at the period when this pyramid was constructed."

however, has traced those passages in the great pyramid which had been so studiously concealed. The exterior opening is 60 feet above the foundation, and leads into a passage 66 paces long, now much obstructed by sand and dust. It is closed by two large blocks of granite, the attempts to penetrate which seem to have been made in various directions before the true opening was discovered. This leads into another gallery 120 feet long, and so steep that it has been found necessary to cut steps in the floor to facilitate the ascent. This gallery terminates in a landing-place 15 feet square, containing a perpendicular opening downwards, commonly called the well. Another gallery of 170 feet long then leads into what is called the queen's chamber, about 18 feet long by 15 broad. The hypothesis which makes it the tomb of a queen of Egypt is purely gratuitous, as there is no sarcophagus or other object denoting such a destination. The next gallery is longer than any of the rest, extending 180 feet; it is $6\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, and the roof rises to the height of 60 feet. At the end is an enormous mass of granite, which seems to have long baffled the zeal of the searchers. At length, by cutting through 13 feet of solid rock, they found the entrance of the principal chamber. This is of an oblong form, 32 feet long, 16 broad, and 18 high. At the farthest extremity, on the right, appears the sarcophagus, for the reception of which this immense structure seems to have been reared. It is of granite, 6 feet 11 inches long, 3 feet wide, and 3 feet $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch high. No other excavation, either here or in any other part of the pyramid, has yet been discovered.

Pyramid of Cephrenes.] The second pyramid, which, from the name of its supposed founder, is called that of *Cephrenes*, is stated by Denon to have a base of 655 feet, and a height of 398. There still appears on its surface part of the stucco, composed of gypsum and flint, with which it has been originally covered. The first pyramid seems never to have been coated. It long defied all attempts to penetrate into its interior. The efforts of M. Belzoni, however, were successful. He commenced his labours at this herculean task on the 10th of February, and with 60 men began to cut through a mass of stones and cement, which, from his own description, must have presented the consistency of a living rock. After incalculable toil, attended with no small personal risk, he at length succeeded, on the 2d of March, in discovering a passage into the subterraneous chambers.¹⁹ Proceeding along a narrow passage, upwards of 100 feet in length, he reached the great chamber, 46 feet long, 16 wide, and 23 high, cut chiefly out of the rock. The most conspicuous object was a large sarcophagus of granite, half sunk in the floor, and containing a small quantity of what appeared to be human bones. On the walls was an Arabic inscription, importing that this pyramid had been opened and inspected in presence of the sultan Ali Mahomet the first Ugloch. The appearance of the sarcophagus, and the bones which it contained, seemed at first to confirm the belief that these stupendous monuments—as had been asserted by Strabo and Diodorus—were intended as sepulchres for the kings of Egypt; but the bones having been brought to London, and examined by the royal college of physicians, were by them ascertained to belong to the skeleton of a cow, whence it has been inferred that these vast

¹⁹ The death of a man so admirably qualified for pursuing these discoveries cannot but be considered as a serious injury to the advancement of science. Had he lived, his future exertions would probably have rendered the British museum the first repository in the world for Egyptian arts and antiquities. It will, we fear, be found very difficult to repair the loss of such a man; for in whom could equal talents be found combined with equal energy and devoted enthusiasm?

structures were reared in honour of this favourite object of Egyptian worship.

Many and ingenious have been the conjectures formed concerning these immense and apparently useless piles of masonry; but neither the ancient historians nor modern travellers are yet exactly agreed either as to the materials employed in building them, or the uses which they were intended to serve. It is remarkable that no hieroglyphical inscriptions are found in or about the pyramids. Some have supposed that they were constructed for scientific purposes; others for sepulchral uses. "It is evident, that the religious ideas of the Egyptians respecting the immortality of the soul, and its return to this world, induced them to give their buildings that solidity and grand character which distinguished their works from those of the Greeks and the other nations of antiquity. They wished to survive posterity; and fancied they were working for eternity."

The Sphinx.] About 300 paces to the E. of the second pyramid stands the celebrated Sphinx—a statue of a head joined to the body of a quadruped—cut out of the solid rock. Dr Pocock found only the head, neck, and the top of the back visible. The rest was sunk in the sand. The length, from the fore part of the neck to the tail, was 125 feet. M. Belzoni, with the same industry he displayed on other occasions, cleared away the sand from this huge mass, and laid open a multitude of curious objects. A monolithic temple, of considerable dimensions, was discovered between the legs of the sphynx, and another in one of its paws. The ground in front was covered with Grecian and Roman buildings, inscriptions on which commemorated the visits of emperors and great men to view this remarkable object. There are numerous smaller sphynxes found in Egypt.

Suez, &c.] Suez, situated at the head and on the W. side of the Red sea, contains 12 mosques, several coffee-houses, and a large khan where merchandise is lodged. The houses are excessively crowded, and the fortifications—which were never of great strength—are now in ruins. Suez presents no prospect but a waste of yellow sands, and a lake of green water, and there is not a spring nearer than 14 miles; but it has a considerable trade in coffee, the greater part of what is consumed in the Turkish empire passing through its port.—*Balbeis*, situated on the borders of the desert, N.E. from Cairo, contains about 6000 inhabitants, who are principally employed in the cultivation of the soil. They also carry on some trade in corn.—*Benisouef*, situated on the W. bank of the Nile, is thickly surrounded with date-trees, and presents to the eye of the traveller a most agreeable prospect. It has a manufactory of coarse carpets. From this place a narrow pass leads through the mountains into the district of *Fayoum* or *Fajum*.—*Minieh*, situated higher up the river, is pleasant and populous, and carries on a considerable trade. Earthen vessels for cooling water are manufactured here. They are made from clay obtained in the vicinity, and give employment to a great part of the inhabitants. The columns of granite broken and thrown down, and some yet standing, indicate this to be the site of an ancient city; but as to its name authors are not agreed. All loaded vessels from Upper Egypt pay a toll here.

Province of Fayoum.] This province belongs to the northern part of Middle Egypt. It is a table-land, bounded on the N., the W., and the S., by a chain of mountains which separate it from the Libyan desert. There are two lakes in this province: the *Garaq* in the S., and the *Birket-el-Queroun* in the N. The soil is a rich alluvium of various depths resting

upon calcareous rocks; that of the northern parts is the richest. This province is irrigated from the canal of Joseph. We have already noticed its principal productions. It keeps up a large trade, by means of weekly caravans, with Cairo. The population of Fayoum has been calculated to amount to 59,000 souls, including two rude and hostile tribes of Arabs, whose quarrels often disturb the peace of the inhabitants; it is also subject to hostile incursions of Bedouins. All the villages in this province pay a fixed *mihr*, independent of what is due at the rise of the Nile. In this district was situated the *Labyrinth*, so celebrated in antiquity, which consisted of a mysterious building of 3060 chambers, one-half of which was above ground, and the other half below. The precise situation of this extraordinary structure cannot now be determined. Belzoni is of opinion that the ruins are buried under the accumulated depositions from the waters of the Nile brought hither by the canal of Joseph.

CHAP. IX.—TOPOGRAPHY OF UPPER EGYPT.

THE inhabitants of Upper Egypt, as far as Assuan, are of a brown complexion, farther southwards their features exhibit a near resemblance to those of the interior of Africa. Said or Upper Egypt is the most healthy part of this country. The villages here are seldom raised above the level of the ordinary inundations of the Nile, but depend for their safety on artificial fences.

Towns.] *Sioat*, occupying the site of the ancient *Lycopolis*, near a steep mountain, about a mile from the W. side of the Nile, is regarded as the capital of Middle Egypt, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants, who are mostly employed in the manufacture of blue cloth, or in commercial transactions. They send wheat and flax to Lower Egypt, bringing salt and other articles in return. From Mecca, Indian goods are brought to it by way of Cosseir, and the Soudan caravans form its principal resources. The grottoes near the city of Sioat contain very curious antique paintings.—*Echmim*, situated among numerous remains of antiquity, and supposed to be the ruins of *Shemais* or *Panopolis*, is chiefly remarkable for having, contrary to all other Egyptian towns, straight and wide streets. The houses, however, are built of unburnt bricks, and have upon the whole but a poor appearance.—*Girge* or *Djirajeh*, formerly the capital of Said, and still among the largest cities of Egypt, is built along the Nile where the shore is lofty and steep, and is about a league in circumference. It contains mosques, squares, and shops in abundance, and is surrounded by gardens in a high state of cultivation, from which it has at all times an abundant supply of fruits and vegetables, at very low prices.—*Denderah* is a place of little consequence in itself, but travellers visit it on account of the magnificent ruins in its neighbourhood. An able antiquary has shown that the celebrated zodiacs found here could not be of an age prior to the conquest of Alexander.—*Beneadi*, situated on the verge of the desert, is 2 miles in length, and has 12,000 inhabitants, distinguished for spirit and enterprise. The caravans which trade to Darfoor meet at this place, and it reaps the profits of a great part of the trade carried on with the interior districts of Africa.—*Ghenna*, situated on an eminence E. of the Nile, is the rendezvous of the caravans which trade with Cosseir on the Red sea. The town has no remarkable edifices to boast of; its environs are laid out in gardens, which yield oranges, dates, melons, and lemons; while the

clustering trees form arbours and shades most delightfully refreshing in that land, where, according to the lively expression of a spirited traveller, the earth is fire and the wind flame.—*Kous*, stands most beautifully embosomed amid numerous and extensive orchards, with walks finely shaded and perfumed. It was formerly the storehouse of the merchandise of Yemen, and is still frequented by the Arabian caravans, but, in consequence of grievous oppressions on the part of the government, it has lost much of its original splendour and opulence.—*Syene* or *Assouan*, the last place in this direction in which the Arabic is spoken as the vernacular tongue, is situated at the southern extremity of Egypt, directly under the tropic. It was famous for a solstitial well, on the surface of the water of which the sun's disk was described. It has, however, been suffered to go to ruin. The town is built of stone, and has straight streets. There are terraces in the neighbourhood of a peculiar kind of reddish granite, hence called *syenite*. The whole town is encompassed with vestiges of buildings, many of which are ruined Christian churches and convents, but the Christian faith is no longer known here. The principal produce of the neighbourhood is senna, which also forms the staple of its trade.—Under the same parallel as Assouan, in the most southerly part of the vast desert of the Thebaid, which lies between the valley of the Nile and the Red sea, is the site of the ancient *Berenice*, of which the ruins are still perceptible.

Pyramids of Saccara.] The pyramids of Saccara are formed of brick, and dispersed over a line of 11 miles. They are sometimes called the pyramids of Aboosair.

Isle of Philoe.] Two leagues to the S. of Syene is the small island of *Philoe*, once a sacred place of pilgrimage to the ancient Egyptians. Buckingham has described the scenery of this spot, and the emotions with which it inspired him, with so much beauty, that we cannot resist transferring his narrative to our pages:—"We had been coasting along a shore as barren as the minds of those who people it—between mountains whose aspect was as wild and sterile as the inhabitants were destitute and savage, and stunned with the harsh noises of their discordant boat-songs, which the rocks echoed from their solitary caves, when, in a moment, as if by fairy transportation, on turning the sharp angle of the eastern point, *Philoe* was before us! I had heard the crew exclaim *Shellall! Shellall!*—'the cataracts! the cataracts!' and when I rose to join in the congratulation of our arrival, the song was ceased, the rowers hung on their suspended oars, and we glided down the rapid stream without a sound, without a murmur, even of its wave, to break the stillness that reigned. The silent calm, the momentary contrast, the zenith moon, the midnight hour, and the surrounding scenery, amid which this enchanting island seems enveloped, all gave a charm to the picture which no pencil could portray—which must be witnessed and felt to be at all conceived.

"When we had reached to within about 200 yards of the southern point, the boat was moored to the shore, that we might re-enjoy its beauties at sun-rise; and the interval of our stay here, tedious as it would have been under any other circumstances, was to me an interval of contemplative pleasure. The ages of primitive simplicity, the infancy of art, its empire of perfection, and subsequent decay, seemed to pass before me in review; but though the glory of Egyptian power is almost irresistibly impressed by those colossal monuments, which seemed destined to tell the latest remnant of posterity the omnipotence of its reign, and, by the indestructibility of its massy works, to promulgate the immortality of their founders—though the

bewildered faculties of the astonished beholder compel him to yield a tribute of admiration, yet it must be confessed, that that glory is observed, and its brilliance tarnished, by a conviction of the theocratic tyranny by which its giant strength must have been upheld. The question constantly suggests itself:—What could have been the basis of that religion, whose chief and ever-present deity was Priapus, to whose honour the oldest, the largest, and the most splendid temples were dedicated, whose treasures and resources were boundless and infinite, whose sanctuaries were dark and mysterious, whose precepts and duties were sacrifices and offerings, whose Isis was a young and lovely female, the parent of the Grecian Venus, on whose walls the unveiled emblems of nature were constantly displayed, and where the embraces of beauty, the enjoyment of feasts, and the fascinations of music, were numbered among their highest and most frequently repeated enjoyments? That this was a popular and powerful religion few would doubt. But when we ask whether piety or pleasure was its end and aim, there seems but one reply.

“The day advanced, the sun rose, and when his early beams first gilded the broken columns, obelisks, and roofs of Philoe, the pomp of ruin was complete; ’twas like the hoary figures of bearded age, more venerable in decay; and notwithstanding the reflective reasoning of the preceding hour, I could not but admit that a people, who were capable of works like these, must have been great, must have been wise—I had almost said, must have been virtuous also—since it is impossible to look even now upon their edifices without a feeling of respect, bordering upon veneration, for the genius that conceived, the hand that reared, and the chisel that adorned them.”

Plain of Thebes.] The plain of Thebes is bounded on the W. by the sterile Libyan chain, and on the E. by the equally dreary rocks which separate Egypt from the Red sea. Among the immense piles of ruins every where to be met with in Egypt, we must particularise those of Thebes, ‘the city of an hundred gates,’—‘the world’s great empress on the Egyptian plain;’ and they are certainly the most remarkable in the world, whether we consider their stupendous magnitude, or the high antiquity to which they ascend. The glory of Thebes belongs to a period prior to the commencement of authentic history; and, reflected only by the dim lights of tradition and poetry, would certainly be considered as fabulous, did not such ‘most mighty monuments’ remain as witnesses to its truth. Homer represents her as ‘spreading her conquests o’er a thousand states,’ and ‘pouring her heroes through an hundred gates,’ but her site at present, presents only a few scattered villages, consisting of miserable cottages built in the courts of ruined temples. The ancient structures, however, still remain in a state of wonderful preservation, extending for 7 or 8 miles along the banks of the river. Almost the whole of this space is covered with magnificent portals, tall obelisks decorated with most beautiful sculpture, towering columns, and endless avenues of colossal statues. The eastern side is distinguished by the temples of Carnac and Luxor, the western by the Memnonium or palace of Memnon, and by the sepulchres of the kings. “It is absolutely impossible,” says a late and most ingenious traveller, “to imagine the scene displayed without seeing it. The most sublime ideas that can be formed from the most magnificent specimens of our present architecture, would give a very incorrect idea of these ruins; for such is the difference,—not only in magnitude, but in form, proportion, and construction,—that even the pencil can convey but a faint idea of the

whole. It appeared to me like entering a city of giants, who, after a long conflict, had been all destroyed, leaving the ruins of their various temples as the only proofs of their former existence." The temple of *Luxor* or *El-Aksor*, that is, 'the Ruins,' presents to the traveller at once one of the most splendid groups of Egyptian grandeur. It is nearly 800 feet in length. The extensive propylæon, measuring about 200 feet,—with the 2 obelisks, 80 feet high and 10 feet square at the bottom, and the rows of colossal statues in the front,—the thick groups of enormous columns,—the variety of apartments and the sanctuary it contains,—the beautiful ornaments that adorn every part of the walls and columns,—cause in the astonished traveller an oblivion of all that he has seen before. If his attention be attracted to the N. side of Thebes by the towering remains which project a great height above the wood of palm-trees, he will gradually enter that forest-like assemblage of ruins of temples, columns, obelisks, colossi, sphynxes, portals, and an endless number of other astonishing objects, that will convince him at once of the impossibility of a description.

"It is among the ruins of Thebes," says the Baroness Minutoli, "that all kinds of worldly ambition, even the most noble of those which inflame genius and imagination, are reduced to their true value;—it is there that we should come to meditate on the destiny of nations, and on the nothingness of the powers of the earth. Yet, while we are impressed with the inutility of the efforts of man in his struggle with Time, the contemplation of these ruins is far from inspiring complete discouragement,—and we feel conscious that the being capable of such sublime conceptions, and of such mighty labours, is called to higher destinies and a more noble ambition. Here genius survives destruction, and like the phoenix of the fable, reviving from its ashes, the soul soars victorious from the bosom of the tomb to the abode of immortality."

On the W. side of the Nile still the traveller finds himself among wonders. The temples of *Gournoo*, *Memnonium*, and *Medinat Habou*, attest the extent of the city on this side. The unrivalled colossal figures in the plains of Thebes, the number of tombs excavated in the rocks, those in the great valley of the kings, with their paintings, sculptures, mummies, sarcophagi, figures, &c. are all objects worthy of the admiration of the traveller; who will not fail to wonder how a nation, which was once so great as to erect these stupendous edifices, could so far fall into oblivion, that even their language and writing are almost unknown to us.—The *Mummy-pits* on the W. side of the river are singular excavations. Some of them are cut 309 feet into the solid rock, having numerous chambers, and being covered with hieroglyphics and paintings of well-shaped figures, the colours apparently as fresh as the day they were laid on. You here see scenes of life faithfully represented,—of every day life, its pleasures and labours, the instruments of its happiness and of its crimes. You see the labours of agriculture,—the sower, the basket, the plough, the steers; and the artist has playfully depicted a calf skipping among the furrows. You have the making of bread, the cooking for a feast; you have a flower-garden and the scene of irrigation; you see couches and chairs, such as might at this day adorn a drawing-room in London or Paris; you have vases of every form, down to the common jug; harps, with figures bending over them, and others seated and listening; barks, with large, curious, and many coloured sails; and lastly, weapons of war, the sword, the dagger, the bow, the arrow, the quiver, spears, helmets, and dresses of honour. Within the dark recesses of these vast monuments of Egyptian architecture, are found *Mum-*

mies,—the bodies of the dead preserved from corruption and decay, by the art of embalming, which the ancient Egyptians appear to have exercised, even in the remotest ages of history, with singular care and skill.²⁰ The Arabs of Gournoo lead the lives of troglodytes in the entrance of these tombs.

Cosseir.] Cosseir, separated from the valley of the Nile by a barren mountainous desert, 100 miles across at the narrowest part, which is opposite Ghennes in Upper Egypt, is the most considerable port on the Egyptian side of the Red sea. The houses are constructed of coarse wooden frames covered with tattered mats, under which the miserable inhabitants,—a mixture of Turks and Arabs,—maintain a wretched existence on shell-fish and bad water brought from Terfowy, a distance of 20 miles. The town is defended by a castle; the port and road of the place are formed by reefs of coral rock. A considerable quantity of corn is shipped here for Mecca, Jidda, and other towns on the opposite coast, yet it has neither custom-house nor caravansary. No words can describe the frightful barrenness of the surrounding soil, or the dazzling lustre of the shelly shore.

CHAP. X.—THE OASES.

A singular feature in the topography of Egypt is the oases. Strabo says, the word *oasis* is a name given, in the language of Egypt, to inhabited cantons which are entirely surrounded by vast deserts, in which they resemble so many islands in the midst of the ocean. The Arabs call them *Wahsh*, or inhabited places. They are generally reckoned three in number: the *Oasis Magna*, the *Oasis Parva*, or that of El-Kassar, and the Libyan Oasis, or Oasis of Siwah. To these some add the Western Oasis, first visited by Sir Archibald Edmonstone in 1819,

²⁰ Certain parts of animal bodies are less liable than the rest to those changes which are usually induced upon them by putrefaction, after the extinction of life; and when the moist and fluid parts of a carcase have been evaporated by heat, the solids will often continue for a long time unchanged. The vegetable matter which is employed in tanning leather, is equally fit to preserve almost any other animal substance from decay. Salts and aromatics also possess the property of retarding or counteracting putrefaction in almost all possible circumstances. These facts were well-known to the ancient Egyptians; and guided them to that perfection in the art of embalming which is displayed in the preservation of the mummies. In the 'Philosophical Transactions' for 1835, we find a paper on an Egyptian mummy: The mummy in question was presented to Dr Granville by Sir Archibald Edmonstone, who purchased it at Gournoo in 1819, from one of the inhabitants of the sepulchral excavations on the side of the mountain. It was contained in a case of sycomore wood, highly coloured externally and varnished, with many hundred symbolic, or hieroglyphic figures painted on it, and having at one of its extremities (the upper one, as the case is made to stand on its feet) the mask of a female of a middle age, and rather handsome. The mummy was covered with bandages and square-pieces of cloth, very skillfully arranged, and applied with a neatness and precision that would baffle the imitative power of the most adroit surgeon of the present day. These were repeated so many times, that when removed the whole mass of them was found to weigh 28lb. avoirdupois. Dr Granville ascertained that the bandages consisted of linen as well as cotton, and that they had previously been tanned. These envelopes being removed, it became at once apparent that the mummy was that of a female, and in the most complete state of preservation; possessing softness with the firmness of muscles, mobility in the articulations, and a peculiar character of beauty in its general form. The dimensions of every part of this Egyptian female, compared with those given by writers on the fine arts, of the Venus de Medici, show her to have differed but little from the latter in configuration. In the same manner Dr Granville has shown, by means of comparative measurement, that the female in question does not belong to the Ethiopian or Negro race, but approaches the nearest to the *beau idéal* of Caucasian structure. This is the first time that we have had a good opportunity of fixing our ideas respecting the conformation of the Egyptian women who lived anteriorly to the building of the pyramids.

Edmonstone and Rennell agree that the foundation of these spots of fertility in the desert was first laid by the vegetation occasioned by springs, the decay of which gradually produced more soil, until it increased to its present state. They are always surrounded with high lands. Under the Empire, the whole region of the oases was attached to the Heptanomis. The Roman emperors made them places of exile for state-delinquents. The Arians also exiled their ecclesiastical opponents thither.

Oasis of Siwah.] Brown, who visited Siwah in 1792, was the first modern traveller who penetrated to this oasis. On the 15th day from Alexandria, he reached Siwah. Hornemann reached it in 1798, after a journey of 13 days from Cairo. In 1820, Drovetti availed himself of an expedition sent by the pasha to reduce the Siwahans to obedience, and reached Siwah, after having travelled about 130 leagues S. W. from Terraneh. In the same year, the baron Minutoli visited the oasis. The united reports of these travellers inform us that Siwah Kebir, the capital of the Great Oasis, is situated nearly in the same latitude with Beni-Souef; that the oasis is about 9 miles in length, and 2 in breadth, a large proportion of this area once being occupied by date-trees; that the soil is in general a sandy clay, and rice and wheat are cultivated; that tepid mineral springs are numerous, and rock-salt is found in large blocks. The population of the town of Siwah they estimated at between 2000 and 2500; and that of the whole oasis at 8000 souls. The language of the Siwahans is supposed to be the Berber. They carry on an extensive trade by means of caravans, with Alexandria, Tripoli, and Fezzan.

Temple of Jupiter Ammon.] Brown's description of this oasis exactly harmonises with those of Herodotus, Diodorus, Arrian, Curtius, Strabo, and the Arabian geographers, so that there can be no reasonable doubt of its identity with the ancient oasis of Ammon. "We passed along some shady paths," says Brown, "between gardens, till, at the distance of two miles we arrived at what they called the Birbe, or Ruins. The ruins too exactly resemble those of ancient Egypt to leave a doubt that the Temple was erected and adorned by the same intelligent race of men. The figures of Isis and Anubis (Egyptian deities) are conspicuous amongst the sculptures; and the proportions are those of the Egyptian temples, though in miniature. The rocks which I saw in the vicinity, being of a sandy nature, bear so little resemblance to that which is employed in this fabric, that I am inclined to believe the materials cannot have been prepared on the spot. It is built of massy stones like those of the pyramids. The soil around seems to indicate that other buildings have once existed near the place—the materials of which either time has levelled with the soil, or the natives have applied to other purposes. I observed some hewn stones in the modern buildings. One of those springs, which rises near the building described, is observed by the natives to be sometimes cold and sometimes warm. The complexion of the people is darker than that of the Egyptians. Their dialect is also different. Among those whose costume was discernible, it approaches nearer to that of the Arabs of the Desert, than of the Egyptians or Moors. The Ruins, or Birbe, was a building of undoubted antiquity, and though small, in every respect worthy of regard. It was a single apartment, built of massy stones like those of the pyramids, and covered originally with six large and solid blocks, reaching from one wall to the other. The length I found to be 32 feet in the clear, 18 in height, and 15 in width. A gate situated at one end, forms the principal entrance; and two doors also near that extre-

unity, open opposite near to each other. The other end is quite ruinous; but judging from circumstances, it may be imagined that the building has never been much larger than it now is. There is no appearance of any other edifice having been attached to it, and the less so, as there are remains of sculpture on the exterior of the walls. In the interior are three rows of emblematical figures, apparently designed for a procession, and the space between them is filled with hieroglyphic characters properly so called. The soffit is also adorned in the same manner; but one of the stones which formed it, is fallen in and breaks the connection. The other five remain entire. The sculpture is sufficiently distinct, and even the colours remain in some places." Brown also visited certain *catacombs* in a rocky hill, close to the oasis of Siwah. They were 30 in number, their dimensions were 12 feet long by six feet broad, and the same in height. This shows that Egyptian customs prevailed there. Six miles distant from Siwah, Mr Brown passed a small temple of the Doric order, which has either never had an inscription, or if otherwise, it has been totally obliterated. The proportions of it are of the best age of architecture, though the materials are ordinary, being only a calcareous stone, full of marine spoils.

Oasis Parva.] The *Oasis Parva* lies at the distance of 4 or 5 days to the S. E. of Siwah, and consists of a series of inhabited spots. Belzoni describes it as "a valley surrounded with high rocks, which form a spacious plain of 12 or 14 miles in length, and about 6 in breadth." There is but a small portion of this valley cultivated. El-Kassar, the chief village in this oasis, is pleasantly situated in the centre of a grove of palm-trees. This oasis produces the best dates known in Egypt.

Oasis Magna.] The Great, or Thebaic Oasis, is the first halting place of the Darfoor caravan, which assembles at Siout. It, too, consists of a number of fertile spots, separated by desert intervals, in a line parallel with the Nile: the whole extent being nearly 100 miles. M. Poncet visited it in 1698. He says it contains many gardens watered with rivulets, and that its palm groves exhibit a perpetual verdure. According to more recent accounts, it is covered with Egyptian ruins. The principal town is *El-Kargeh*, in the neighbourhood of which are three very beautiful temples, a regular necropolis containing between 200 and 300 buildings of unburned bricks, chiefly of a square shape, and each surmounted by a dome similar to the small mosques erected over the graves of sheiks. Sir Archibald Edmonstone supposes them to be sepulchres of a Roman construction, at an early period. Belzoni found in the adjoining desert about 30 tumuli, which he supposed might contain the bodies of that part of Cambyzes' army who perished here in consequence of the treachery of their guides.

Western Oasis.] At the distance of about a day and a-half to the W. of El-Kargeh, a broad defile leads down into the plain which contains the Western Oasis, the whole route being marked by heaps of broken pottery. The chief town, *El-Cayar*, is beautifully situated on an eminence at the foot of a line of rocks. This oasis includes 12 villages. The climate is extremely variable in winter. The soil is a light red earth, fertilized entirely by irrigation. Lemons and citrons are plentiful, and indigo is reared. The inhabitants are harassed by the Mogrebbin Arabs.

Authorities.] Brown's Travels, 4to. 1779.—Volney's Travels.—

Bruce's Travels, 7 vols. Edinb. 1804.—Burckhardt's Travels in Egypt and Nubia.—Valentia's Travels, 8vo. 1811.—Description de l'Egypt, publiée par ordre de Napoleon, 3 grande in fol. ou 25 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1827.—Buckingham's Travels.—Lord Belmore's Travels.—Gerard, Memoires sur l'Egypte.—Denon's Travels and Researches in Egypt.—Dubois-Ayme, Memoires sur les bouches du Nil. Livourne, 1812.—Legh's Journey in Egypt, 4to. 1816.—Viaggio da Tripoli alle Frontiere dell Egitto, fatto nel 1817. Dal Dottore P. Della Cella, 8vo. Genova.—Light's Travels in Egypt, 4to. 1818.—Journey to two of the Oases of Upper Egypt, by Sir Archd. Edmonstone, 1822.—Belzoni's Travels, 2 vols. 8vo. London, 1822.—Henniker's Notes during a visit to Egypt, 8vo. 1823.—Jowett's Christian Researches, 8vo. 1814.—Carne's Letters from the East, 2 vols. 12mo. Lond.—The Baroness Minutoli's Recollections of Egypt, 12mo. 1826.—Relation d'un Voyage dans la Marmarique, &c. Par M. J. R. Pacho, 4to. Paris, 1827–9.—Encyclopædia Metropolitana, Art. Egypt.—An elaborate work, the result of M. Rifaud's Travels in Egypt and Nubia, from 1805 to 1827, is announced at Paris. It is to form 5 folio volumes.

NUBIA.

OUR survey of the regions through which the upper part of the course of the Nile passes, must be somewhat more rapid than that which we have taken of the districts of the Lower Nile. The upper course of this celebrated river, from Egypt to Abyssinia, belongs to a country which, until very recently, was almost entirely unknown to Europeans. Poncet and Bruce touched upon it in their way to Abyssinia; Burckhardt gave us fuller information regarding it; but it was reserved for Messrs Waddington, English, and Caillaud, three travellers of different nations, to penetrate into this region under cover of Mehemed Ali's expedition in 1822.

Name, Extent, and Boundaries.] The first country which a person ascending the Nile above the first cataract enters, is Nubia. This name, however, is very indefinitely used; being sometimes applied to a large, and very frequently to a much less extensive country,—the boundaries of both of which are very vague and uncertain. Some geographers represent Egypt as forming the northern boundaries of this country, while it extends southwards to Kordofan and Abyssinia, so as to embrace Sennaar and the districts on both sides of the Nile. Others give the name of Nubia only to the country on the E. of the Nile, and assume the Mareb as its boundaries towards the S.; so that Dongola and Sennaar are considered as separate countries.

CHAP. I.—HISTORY AND INHABITANTS.

ANY notices which we find of this country in Greek or Roman authors are brief and insignificant; although the State of Meroe figures largely in Herodotus, and the expedition of Cambyses against Ethiopia must necessarily have crossed Nubia. In the time of Herodotus the island of Elephantine formed the southern extremity of Egypt, and all beyond it—consequently Nubia also—was unknown to the Greeks. The reason of this fact probably was, that although Egypt, by the expedition of Cambyses, had become a Persian province, the Persians had never been able to carry their arms farther into Nubia and Ethiopia. The lapse of two centuries, during which Egypt remained subject to Persia, until the conquest by Alexander in 332, seems to have effected a complete estrangement in manners, language, and national feelings, betwixt the inhabitants of Egypt and Nubia; the former had, within that period, adopted many Persian customs,—the latter remained true to the manners of their ancestors. During the dominion of the Ptolemies, Elephantine, and the country of the Cataracts, continued to form the southern frontier of Egypt. Under the Roman empire, the campaign of Petronius, the general of Augustus Cæsar, against the Ethiopians, enlarged the Egyptian boundaries, as that general is represented to have conquered several Nubian cities on the right banks of the Nile, among which were Pelcis Primis, and Nabata, the capital of the country. In Pliny's time, however, the country of the Cataracts came again to be considered as the *Claustra Romani imperii*; and even Ptolemy

himself, although by far the most learned of the Egyptian geographers, seems to have been unacquainted with the regions on the course of the Nile beyond these boundaries. With the exception of a few occasional excursions of the Roman troops beyond the Cataracts, they seem not to have advanced any way into this country until the reign of Probus and Dioclesian. Procopius informs us that the latter emperor endeavoured to establish a Nubian colony around the Cataracts, to serve as a bulwark for his Egyptian province against the invasion of the southern hordes. The Nubians do not appear in history later than Justinian's reign; but the doctrines of Christianity began about this time to penetrate into the higher valleys of the Nile. In 639, when the Arabs had penetrated into Upper Egypt, Nubia afforded an asylum to the fugitive Christians; and, according to Eutychius, the doctrines of Christianity now spread very extensively among the native Nubians. The tenets of the Monophysites were at this period predominant in Egypt, and were taught by the fugitive Copts to their converts in Nubia. It seems to have been at this period that the numerous ancient heathen temples, along the Nubian side of the Nile, were converted into Christian churches. Although surrounded on all sides by tribes of the Mahomedan persuasion, the Nubians resisted their inroads until the end of the 13th century, when the Egyptian sultan, Dhaher Bibar, conquered Dongola, the capital of Nubia, and subjected this Christian kingdom to tribute. Between the years 674 and 689 of the Hegira, or 1275 and 1290 of the Christian era, the Nubian kingdom was nearly annihilated, or lost the power of restraining the incursions of the Bedouin Arabs within its limits. The Christian Byzantine historians afford no more information regarding Nubia than the earlier Greek and Roman writers, as their intercourse with this country was equally limited. According to the traditions of the Nubians themselves, the present inhabitants of the country derive their origin from the Bedouin invaders. When these hostile Arabs entered the country, the Christian inhabitants were either put to the sword or driven beyond the limits of the kingdom. A few, however, apostatised, and preserved their property by embracing the creed of the prophet; and their descendants, Burckhardt observes, can still be distinguished at Tafa and Serra, to the N. of Wady Halfa. The Christians who are said to live at Bergame and Andam are perhaps descendants of the fugitive Christian Nubians. The two Arabian tribes of Djowabere and El-Gharbye took possession of the country from Assouan to Wady Halfa, and afterwards extended their authority over a great number of small tribes settled on the banks of the river. The tribe Djaafere planted themselves on the banks of the Nile from Esneh to Assouan; while some families of Schereefs settled in the Batn-el-Hadjer, and the Koreish tribe took possession of Mahass. Between these new possessors of Nubia and the kings of Dongola, a fierce and interminable war was carried on, until the latter fairly broke the power of their opponents, and reduced them to the condition of tributaries. The Djowabere tribe next turned its arms against the Gharbyes and nearly annihilated them. But the latter having sent a mission to Constantinople in 1420, obtained the assistance of a body of Bosniac soldiers to assist them against the Djowaberes, who were in their turn driven back to Dongola, the principal inhabitants of which place still trace their origin to the fugitive Djowaberes. The Bosniac soldiers either built or garrisoned the three castles at Assouan, Ibrim, and Say; and obtained certain prerogatives for themselves and their descendants, who received the appellation of *Kaladshy*, or 'the people of the castles.' They are still distinguished among

the Nubians by the name of *Omanli*, or Turks. They have, indeed, lost their original language; but their features still betray a more northerly origin than the rest of the inhabitants of the country. Their complexion is light brown, while that of the Nubians is almost black. They are independent of the governors of Nubia, who are extremely jealous of them, and are often at open war with them. The inhabitants of Nubia, as far south as Dongola, are known in Egypt under the name of *Berabera* or *Berbers*. "The Berber of Lower Nubia," says M. Lenormant in a recent letter from that country, "is of a slender form, dark complexion, and prematurely reaches old age, retaining his beauty only during infancy and youth, but reminding an observer more forcibly than any neighbouring people of the ancient Egyptian race, such as they are depicted upon their monuments. The females wear the matted hair of the court of Sesostris. A few of these Berbers have the prudence to save money, but the majority are devoted to gaming and drunkenness. Their more frequent intercourse with Egypt, and their contact with foreigners—who now traverse their country as easily as they might do Switzerland—have effaced those traces of primitive simplicity which have been remarked in their nation. Their language is soft and sonorous; and their local literature prolific in songs and tales." From Dongola and Sennaar, the inhabitants of the countries on the Nile, and all the other Arab tribes as far as Bornou, speak Arabic dialects. The eastern nations on the Atbara, towards Taka and the Red Sea, speak the Biskarye language; to the W. the nearest foreign language is that of Kordofan, a dialect differing in pronunciation only from that of Darfoor. The name *Nouba*, Burckhardt informs us, is likewise given to all the blacks coming from the slave-countries to the S. of Sennaar. The *Sheygga* tribes inhabit the country to the E. of Dongola. They are a handsome gallant race of people; their hue is a clear, glossy jet black, which appeared to M. Waddington, "to be the finest colour that could be selected for a human being." It is not the negro-black, being quite distinguished by its brightness or polish; the features of the *Sheygga* are regular, and their eyes mild and soft. The rocky tract extending along the eastern side of the Nile from Syene to Gooz is occupied by the *Ababde* and *Bisharye* Arabs. These tribes plunder and destroy one another, and have few good traits of character. Their territory formerly belonged to the *Bojah* tribe,—a Berber race supposed to bear a close affinity to the ancient *Blemmyes*. The western desert is occupied by a people called *Barberins* and sometimes *Barabras*; the latter term being to be considered as nearly synonymous with the appellation of Nubians. They are a lean sinewy race of men, of a brown or black complexion, but bear no resemblance to the negroes of the W. of Africa. Among all these people the general Nubian character is discernible; its modifications seem to be the result only of diet, habits, and locality. We shall conclude our sketch of the Nubian tribes, therefore, with Burckhardt's general description of the Nubians. "The men," he tells us, "are generally well-made, strong, and muscular, with fine features. In stature, they are somewhat below the Egyptians. They have no mustachios, and but little beard, wearing it under the chin only, like the figures of the fugitives in the battle-pieces sculptured upon the walls of the Egyptian temples. In passing along the wadys of Nubia, it often occurred to me to remark, that the size and figure of the inhabitants were generally proportioned to the breadth of their cultivable soil. Wherever the plain is broad, and the peasants, from being able to carry on agriculture, are in comparatively easy circumstances, they are taller and more

muscular and healthy; but, in the rocky districts, where the plain is not more than 20 or 30 yards in breadth, they are poor meagre figures; in some places appearing almost like walking skeletons. The women are all well-made, and, though not handsome, have generally sweet countenances and very pleasing manners: I have even seen beauties among them. Denon has certainly not done justice to them. But they are worn down, from their earliest years, by continual labour: the whole business of the house being left to them, while the men are occupied exclusively in the culture of the soil. Of all the women of the East, those of Nubia are the most virtuous; and this is the more praiseworthy, as the vicinity to Upper Egypt, where licentiousness knows no bounds, might be expected to have some influence upon them."

In 1822, Mehemed Ali, pasha of Egypt, despatched an army of 10,000 men under his son Ismail to subdue the whole regions on both sides of the river to its source. The first enemy this expedition encountered were the remains of the Mamalukes, who had built a handsome little town for themselves, called New Dongola. When summoned by Ismail, they proudly replied, "We will make no terms with our servant!" But being unable to muster above 300 men, they retreated to Shendy, whither Ismail pursued them, and compelled them to disperse themselves over the country. The next enemy whom Ismail engaged with was the Sheygya, who are mostly subjects to the king of Meroe. "The only people," says Waddington, "to whom arms are playthings, and war a sport." Their daring prowess, however, was of little avail against the pasha's army, and they were compelled to render homage and a moderate tribute. Eventually, the pasha's troops overrun and extorted an acknowledgment of supremacy from all the States which border on the Nile, and even from the remote kingdom of Darfoor. But there is little probability of his being able to keep up his authority throughout this extensive line. In fact, the Egyptian conquerors, from Sesostriis downwards, have never been able to do so.

CHAP. II.—PHYSICAL FEATURES—CLIMATE—PRODUCTIONS AGRICULTURE AND COMMERCE.

FROM the southern limits of Egypt the land rises gradually towards the S. as far as the sources of the Nile, and the mountains of Abyssinia. The whole country is intersected by large and small valleys, which run from S. to N., and from E. to W.; and on the table-land, several ridges of mountains, of considerable height, stretch themselves across the country, particularly in the eastern parts, near the Arabian gulf. Farther to the S. the Nile runs between high rocks, which confine it to its bed during the periods of highest inundation; here the river forms several rapids and cataracts. The country eastwards from the Nile has been visited only by a few bold travellers, who have accompanied the caravans from one valley to another. The soil is covered, in what is called the Desert of Nubia, with a deep loose sand, and sharp flinty stones. In several places the arid soil is sprinkled with rock salt; here and there a grove of dwindled acacias, or tufts of colocynth and senna relieve its dreary aspect. The water, even during the rainy season, is black and putrid; and the Arabs themselves, who occupy this district, are obliged to remove with their flocks during the dry season, into regions better supplied with water.—The highest mountains here run eastwards from Assouan to Haimar, and are called the moun-

tains of *Otaby* or *Ataby*—a name which is often given to the whole chain, as far as Cosseir. To the southwards, in the neighbourhood of *Souakim*, the mountains assume the appellation of *Dyaab*; and still farther to the S. they are called *Orbay Cangay*. They consist of primitive calcareous rock. Granite, quartz, greenstone, and felspar appear in the western ridges. The western desert, less and less extensive, is called *Bahioodah*. The southern parts of Nubia, being watered by the Albara or Tacazze, the Bahr-el-Azurek and the Bahr-el-Abiad, present a verdant surface in many parts.

Climate.] The climate of Nubia is intensely hot, but, upon the whole, healthy. The small pox is the only epidemic of the country; the plague is hardly known. In the southern districts, the rainy season generally commences about the middle of June. Burckhardt observed it begin at Shandy in the latter days of April. The chamsin generally blows from the 29th or 30th of April to the 18th or 19th of June. It is often accompanied with thunder and lightning. Nothing can exceed the beauty of the mornings and evenings in Nubia. "All of us," says Dr Richardson, "had seen the skies of Italy and Greece; but, for brightness, the nocturnal sky of Egypt and Nubia surpasses them as much as they do that of England." This remark applies more particularly to the valley of the Nile, where rain almost never falls. In the environs of Shendy, Calliaud found the centigrade thermometer, during a whole month, range from 45° to 48°. The thermometer of Fahrenheit, in the month of February, when plunged into the sand, indicated a heat of 125°, and in the open air stood at 96°. Legh cooked a dish by placing the stone-pan in which it was contained in the hot sand.

Productions.] Nubia possesses cows, sheep, goats, buffaloes, oxen, and a few camels. In the eastern mountains, troops of gazelles occur, and monkeys are said to have been observed. Dongola possesses a fine breed of horses. Hyenas are sometimes seen on the banks of the Nile. Elephants and perhaps even the giraffe traverse the deserts. Crocodiles and hippopotami are found in the Nile near Dongola, Sukkot, and Mahass. Eagles, storks, crows, sparrows, a small red-legged species of partridge, lapwings, and plovers, have been enumerated among the birds of Nubia. The sandy islets of the Nile are sometimes covered with an aquatic bird of the size of a goose called *kork*. The Nubians have no implements for fishing except at the first and second Cataracts, where fish are sometimes caught in nets. The most common species are called *dabesk* and *meslog*. The sandy banks of the Nile abound with black beetles, which the Nubians denominate *kafers*, or 'infidels,' and consider poisonous. In marshy spots, a kind of musquito is very troublesome; locusts, larger than the golden wren, occasionally lay waste the fields of the Nubian husbandman. Of the vegetable kingdom, Nubia possesses the *doum* tree, or *palma Thebaica*, and a species of mimosa, called *saut*; but no dates are found from Dongola to Sennaar. The ebony-tree predominates in the forests. On the plains which are inundated by the Nile, particularly between Esneh and Mahass, the senna plant, or *senne-mekke*, abounds. On the sandy western banks of the Nile are tamarisks, and a bush called *symka*, perhaps the *palma Christi*, which affords an excellent food for camels, and from the bean-like fruit of which the Nubians extract a kind of oil with which they anoint their body and hair. The dourra and the *bammia* are the principal sorts of grain: though wheat, millet, beans, barley, and lentiles are also cultivated. A few vines are trained in the neighbourhood of Derr, and cotton and tobacco are cultivated in some parts. It has been affirmed, that there are

mines of gold in Nubia; their situation, however, is not known. The famous emerald-mountain belongs rather to Southern Egypt than Nubia.

Agriculture and Industry.] The inhabitants, from the first Cataract to the frontiers of Dongola, do not plough their fields after the inundation of the Nile has subsided, as they do in Egypt. The waters not rising sufficiently high to overflow the steep banks, irrigation is carried on by means of water-wheels, which are put in action as soon as the river has subsided. The number of these wheels, or *sakie*, as they are called, between Assouan and Wady Halfa, Burckhardt states to have exceeded 600, when he visited the country. One *sakie* requires the alternate labour of 8 or 10 cows, and waters from 3 to 5 *fedhans*. The first seed sown is the dourra. After this crop is reaped, the ground is again irrigated, and barley is sown: and sometimes a third crop is reaped after this. Wheat is grown only in a few districts. Wine is made from the palm-tree, and beer from barley. Date spirits are made and publicly sold from Siout southward through the whole country, and Upper Egypt. Small looms are frequently seen in the houses of the Nubians: with these the women weave very coarse woollen mantles, and cotton-cloth. From the leaves of the date-tree, they form mats and bowls in a very neat manner. These are the only manufactures in Nubia; every thing else is imported from Egypt. Great numbers of Nubians are employed as porters at Cairo.

Commerce.] A main article of Nubian export is dates; the quantity of this article imported into Egypt from Nubia, by way of Assouan, varies from 1500 to 2000 *erdeb*s per year, each *erdeb* weighing about 200 lbs. The principal articles from Egypt, through Berber to Shendy, and thence to Sennaar, Kordofan, and Darfoor, are the *sembib* and *mehleb*,—the former a perfume and medicine, the other a condiment. In addition to these, are imported soap, sugar, beads, coral, paper, and hardware. The returns from the S. and S. E. parts of Soodan to Egypt, through Berber and Shendy, are grain, gold, ivory, musk, ebony, leeches, coffee, fruit, honey, and, above all, slaves. Burckhardt calculates the number of slaves sold annually in the market of Shendy at about 5,000, of whom 1,500 are for the Egyptian, and 2,000 for the Arabian market; the rest are purchased by the Bedouina. A caravan travels twice a year from Wahass to Cairo with slaves. Dollars form the common currency of the country.

CHAP. III.—POPULATION—MANNERS AND CUSTOMS—GOVERNMENT.

Burckhardt estimates the population of Nubia, from Assouan to Mahass, at 100,000 souls. This estimate, of course, does not include the tribes of the Deserts. Perhaps the total population does not fall below 250,000 souls. M. Lenormant estimates the Berber population from the first to the second Cataract at 20,000 souls, and as many from thence to the frontier of Sennaar.

Manners and Customs.] The habitations of the Nubians are low huts of mud or of loose stones, roofed with dourra straw, "which last till they are eaten up by the cattle, when palm-leaves are laid across." The mud dwellings are generally so low that a person can hardly stand erect in them. The houses at Dehr, and a few in the larger villages, are, however, better built. "The utensils of a Nubian's hut consist of about half a dozen coarse earthen jars, about five feet in height, and from one to two feet in

diameter, in which all the provisions are kept; a few earthenware plates; a hand-mill; a hatchet; and a few round sticks, over which the loom is laid. To the north of Dehr, the dress consists usually of a linen-shirt, (that of the wealthier class is dyed blue,) or the woollen cloak of the peasants of Upper Egypt: the head-dress is a small white linen cap, with sometimes a few rags twisted round it in the shape of a turban. Young boys and girls go naked. The women wrap themselves up in linen rags or black woollen gowns; they wear ear-rings and glass bracelets; and those who cannot afford to buy the latter, form them of straw. Their hair falls upon the neck in ringlets, and, on the back part of the head, they wear short tassels of glass or stones, both as an ornament and an amulet. The richer class wear copper or silver rings round their ankles. South of Dehr, and principally at Sukkot and in Mahass, the grown up people go quite naked, with the exception of the loins. The Nubians seldom go unarmed. As soon as a boy grows up, his first endeavour is to purchase a short crooked knife, which the men wear tied over the left elbow, under the shirt, and which they draw upon each other on the slightest quarrel. When a Nubian goes from one village to another, he either carries a long heavy stick headed with iron, or his lance and target. The targets, which are of various shapes and sizes, are sold by the Sheygya Arabs. Those who can afford it, possess also a sword, resembling in shape the swords worn by the knights of the middle ages: a long straight blade, about two inches in breadth, with a handle in the form of a cross; they are of German manufacture. Fire-arms are not common; the richer classes possess matchlocks; but ammunition is scarce."

Government.] The pasha of Egypt has placed a *sheik-el-beled* and a *kaim-mekama* in every considerable Nubian village. These two officers govern in name of the pasha, but are inferior to the *kashef* or chief judge of the district. The total revenue of Nubia, while under the *Kaladshy*, was estimated at about £10,000. It is not known what amount of revenue the Egyptian viceroy now derives from their country; it is estimated not from a certain extent of ground, like the Egyptian *fedhan*, but from every *sakie* or water-wheel.

CHAP. IV.—TOPOGRAPHY.

1st. WADY-EL-KENOUS.] The country extending along the Nile, from Assouan to the northern limits of Dongola, is divided by the inhabitants into two parts: the *Wady-el-Kenous*, extending from Assouan to Sebous,—and the *Wady Nuba*, embracing the whole country from Sebous to Dongola. The latter district is also sometimes called *Sayd*.

Villages, and Temple of Djorn Hossein.] All the villages, as far as Dongola are called *wady*, a 'valley.' There are always three or four of them comprised under one general name. Thus *Wady Dehmyt* extends about four miles along the bank of the river, and includes upwards of half a dozen hamlets, each of which has its particular name.—At *Deboudy* the country on the eastern bank widens a little. Five hours above *Deboudy* is *Wady Kardasoy*, around which are visible the foundations of so many buildings as must, if completed, have rendered it a city of temples.—About 6 hours from Kardasoy, is the district of *Tafa* or *Teffa*, extending along both banks of the river. The principal village here contained between 200 and 300 inhabitants in 1814.—*Kalabshe* is the largest village between

Dehr and Assotan. It consists of a number of huts built round the ruins of a magnificent temple. Belzoni says, the pottery found in the ruins is all of Grecian manufacture. About nine miles below Dakke, at a place called *Djorn Hossein*, is an excavated temple, executed apparently in the infancy of the art. We subjoin Burckhardt's description of this most interesting relic of antiquity.¹

Dakke.] Dakke is supposed to occupy the site of the ancient *Pselcis*. Its temple, a beautiful building, was dedicated to Hermes. It is built of a remarkably fine sandstone of a peculiar blueish tinge.

2d. WADY-NUBA.] *Dehr*, the modern capital of Nubia, is a long straggling village of mud-cottages, in the midst of a thick palm-grove. Dr Richardson estimated the population in 1817, at 3000 souls.—*Ebsambal*, or *Ibsambul*, is celebrated for its magnificent temple, first laid open by Belzoni, which M. Champollion considers to have been built 15 centuries before the Christian era. The interior consists of 14 chambers, extending altogether 154 feet in length. There are no marks of violence about it.—*Wady Halfa* is the last habitable place to which the Nubian boats ascend. The river is navigable, however, above an hour farther. Towards the southern extremity, four cultivated islands occur in succession. Beyond these, innumerable rocky islets form the *second Cataract* of the Nile. The river is here at most 200 yards in breadth; the scenery is

¹ " This temple stands upon the top of a hill, the broad declivity of which is covered with rubbish and some fragments of colossal statues. In front is a portico consisting of five square columns on each side, cut out of the rock, with a row of circular columns in front, constructed of several blocks, and which originally supported an entablature. Of these columns only two remain. Before each of the square-sided columns stands a colossal statue of sand-stone, about eighteen feet high, holding a flail in one hand, the other hanging down: they all represent male figures, with the narrow beard under the chin and the high sphinx cap, their shoulders covered with hieroglyphic inscriptions. On both sides of the portico is an open alley hewn in the rock, whence, perhaps, the materials of the front colonnade were taken. The pronaos, which is entered from the portico by a large gate, is 18 paces square, and contains two rows, three in each, of immense columns, without capitals, measuring 5 feet by 7 in the plan. In front of each of these columns is a colossal figure more than 20 feet in height, representing the usual juvenile figure with the corn-measure or bonnet on the head, the hands crossed upon the breast, and holding the flail and crozier. Although these statues are rudely executed, the outlines of their bodies being incorrect, and their legs mere round blocks, yet they have a striking effect in this comparatively small apartment. Accustomed as I had been to the grandeur of Egyptian temples, I was nevertheless struck with admiration on entering this gloomy pronaos, and beholding these immense figures standing in silence before me. They immediately recalled to my memory the drawings I had seen of the caves near Surat, and other Indian excavated temples, which, in many respects, bear a strong resemblance to those of Nubia. On the side walls of the pronaos are four recesses or niches, in each of which are three statues of the natural size, representing the different symbolical male and female figures which are seen on the walls of the temples of Egypt. The centre figures are generally clothed in a long dress, while the others are naked. All these figures, as well as the colossi, are covered with a thick coat of stucco, and had once been painted: they must then have had a splendid appearance. A door leads from the pronaos into the cella, in the centre of which are two massy pillars, and on each side is a small apartment, which was probably a place of sepulture, with high stone benches, that may have served for supporting mummies, or as tables for embalming the bodies deposited in the temple. The floors have been broken up in search of treasure, and are now covered with rubbish. Behind the cella, and communicating with it by a door, is the adytum, on each side of which is a door also opening into the cella, exactly like those in the temple at Derr. In the posterior wall of the adytum are four statues, above the human size, seated; and in the centre of the wall is a large cubical stone, without any sculpture, the use of which I cannot determine. Of the sculpture and hieroglyphics with which the walls of this temple were covered, very little is now discernible, the sand-stone being of a very friable nature, and soon falling to decay: added to this, the walls are quite black with smoke from the fires kindled by the neighbouring shepherds, who often pass the night in the temple with their cattle. Enough, however, still remains to show that the sculptures are rudely executed."

wild and picturesque, rather than sublime. The river, broken into a number of streams by the rocks and islets, appears as if issuing from a marshy source. Some of the rocks are covered with shrubs and verdure, while others present beds of yellow sand, or black naked summits. These rocks extend about 10 miles; while on each side of the river, the whole prospect is one vast desert of sand-stone, rock, and yellow sand. The island of *Say* above the cataract is about eight miles in length, and from one to three in breadth. It had formerly its own independent aga.—Above *Tinareh*, the Nile pursues a very winding course, and is divided by a succession of large and beautiful islands.—The inhabitants of *Mahass* claim to be descendants of the Arab tribe of *Koreish*, to which the family of *Mahomet* belonged. It is certain, however, says Mr Waddington, that at present the features and language of this people are Nubian.

3d. DONGOLA.] Dongola is situated on the western branch of the Nile. It begins to the S. of the island of *Mosho*, near *Argouan*. *Arambo*, a large solitary hill, about four miles from the Nile, has, from time immemorial, marked the frontiers of *Mahass* and *Dongola*. The latter country is generally flat. The western banks of the river are here the most fertile. Dongola is famous for its breed of horses, and its sheep with hair instead of wool. The inhabitants are all Mahomedans. *Hadj-Omar*, *Haffeer*, *Badeen*, *Hanneeh*, *Wessercoote*, and *Amboocote* are the principal villages.

4th. THE COUNTRY OF THE CUBBABISH ARABS.] This tribe lives towards the W. and S. W. from *Dongola*, in the desert called *Bahioda*, and towards *Shendy*. They are independent and warlike in their habits. *Umkaneijer* and *Robri* are their principal villages.

5th. THE COUNTRY OF THE SHEYGYA ARABS.] A mountainous rocky tract separates *Dongola* from the country of the *Sheygya* Arabs, who are divided into four tribes, and speak the Arabian language. Some of their principal villages are *Terrif*, *Wallad Grait*, *Dabazzait*, and *Merawe*. Learned men are here held in high estimation; and the leading branches of Mahomedan science are taught in the schools, to which the youth from neighbouring countries resort. The territory of *Merawe* on the middle branch, here formed by the Nile, is described as peculiarly luxuriant and well-irrigated. The most interesting object this country offers to the eye of the traveller, is a range of most magnificent monuments at *Merawe*. These are the remains of seven temples, of which the largest is 450 feet long, by 159 broad. The two largest apartments are 147 feet by 111, and 123 by 102. Here are also 17 pyramids; while seven miles higher up the river, at a place called *El-Bellal*, there is a more numerous and lofty range. In the name and localities of *Merawe*, there seems some trace of the ancient *Meroe*.

6th. MOGRAT.] *Mograt* or *Raba-Tab* lies between *Merawe* and *Berber*. It is inhabited by an independent Arab tribe. One of the principal villages is *Bedjem*.

7th. COUNTRY TO THE EAST OF THE NILE VALLEY.]—Of this region only that part through which caravans travel is known. It consists of a series of deep valleys. Some of the defiles are so narrow that a laden camel can only with difficulty make its way through.

8th. BERBER.]—This country is situated on the eastern side of the Nile; to the north of *Atbara*. The chief place is called *Ankheyne* by *Burckhardt*; there are, besides, a number of pretty populous villages. The inhabitants are Arabians of the tribe of *Megrefal*. They are a fine-looking

race of men; but exceedingly treacherous and avaricious. They possess numerous herds of cattle; and their breed of camels is considered particularly good. Some of them are extensively engaged in commerce, as the caravans from Sennar and Shendy pass through this country on their route to Egypt. They are governed by a *mek* of limited authority; the members of his family are called *ras*. *Fakeers* or scholars enjoy great consideration here; almost every family of any importance has a son devoted to the study of the law. Their chief business is to write amulets and magical formulas; they are also the physicians of the country.

9th. DAMER.] Damer is a town or village to the east of Berber, inhabited by the Arabian tribe of Medje-ydin. Most of the inhabitants are *fokaras* or priests, and they are governed by an arch-priest called *El Faky el Kebir*. These priests are held in so much estimation, that caravans under their protection are never attacked by the rapacious tribes of the neighbouring regions, who are afraid lest the *fokaras* should punish them by withholding the due supplies of rain.

10th. RAS EL WADY.] This district lies between Berber and the Mesgrat.

11th. SHENDY.] This country, consisting of immense fertile plains, lies south from Athara. The population consists of various Arab tribes, who are almost constantly at war with each other. In the fertile plain of Boeydha are extensive salt-works, which supply the whole country as far as Sennar with salt. We have already noticed the commercial importance of Shendy, the capital of this district. A day's journey to the north of Shendy, M. Cailland discovered a vast assemblage of pyramids and other ancient monuments. These buildings are turned to the east, and all the pyramids face the same point of the horizon.

12th. COUNTRIES BETWEEN SHENDY AND SOUAKIM.] Very little is known respecting this district. The province of *Taka* forms a part of the country of Bedjee, which embraces the course of the river Athara from Gad Radjih, and is said to extend to the mountains of Abyssinia. *Taka* is quite a flat district, and is bounded on the south by a chain of mountains called Negreyb, which runs parallel with the coast of the Red sea. Violent hurricanes prevail here in June. At the edge of the Desert is a lively commercial village called *Sak-Hadendra*.

13th. COUNTRY SOUTH OF TAKA.] This district is almost unknown. It is inhabited by the Amarer tribe. The plains are in many places impregnated with salt to the depth of several inches.

14th. SOUAKIM.] This district lies at the extremity of a small bay of the Red sea, several islands in which belong to it. The inhabitants are a motley population of Arabian and Bedouin descent. The government is conducted by an emir, who is elected by the principal families.

15th. COAST OF NUBIA.] In proceeding along the coast from Massarah the shore appears flat, but high mountains rise in the interior, and run towards the north. Between these and the shore are some thick forests of the *palms Thebaica* and *minasas*. Lions, panthers, and elephants are said to inhabit there. The country is considered to belong to the kingdom of Sennar. *Missa Mombarik* has a good harbour; there is another at Arus. *Bedjah* is a general name for this coast land; but Burckhardt restricts this appellation to the country south from Sengaz to Abyssinia. The Ababde, Bisharye, and Mekaberab Arabs inhabit this district.

16th. SENNAAR.] This country lies on the east side of the Nile. The name, however, is applied with more extensive or restricted signification

by travellers. It is a table-land, rising towards the south as far as Fazagh, a high mountainous district. The country is watered by the Nile, and is fertile as far as the boundaries of Abyssinia. The climate is rather variable and unhealthy. In 1504 a negro nation, till then unknown, leaving the west bank of the Bahr-el-Abiad embarked on this river, and came down to invade the territories of the Nubian Arabs. These negroes called themselves *Skillooks*, and founded the city of Sennaar, which Poncet affirms contained 100,000 inhabitants, a number evidently prodigiously exaggerated. It is certainly a considerable commercial place, and sends yearly caravans to Egypt, Nigritia, and the port of Sidra in Arabia; but its population certainly does not exceed 10,000 souls. The black and sacred Ibis has been found here.

17th. COUNTRIES SOUTH FROM SENNAAR.] The districts to the S. of Sennaar are almost unknown. From this point Bruce's course diverged to the E., and Brown's lay too far to the W. M. Cailliaud is our only guide and authority here. To the S.E. of Sennaar are *Fazogl*, *El-Keil*, and *Canamil*, on the Blue River. Beyond them is *Dar-foc*, that is, 'the upper country.' *Dar Dinkah* and *Dar Sheluk* are the countries on the western branch of the Nile; the Bahr-el-Abiad and Dar-el-Bertat occupy the interior—a high mountainous tract, thickly wooded, and as yet entirely unexplored. The natives of Fazogl are a handsome race, who rarely have their nose flattened, though they are genuine negroes. A goat-skin round their loins, with its paws tied in a knot in front, is the only covering of the men. The women have a piece of cotton cloth wrapped round their middle. Necklaces and bracelets of glass beads, with a wooden peg in their ears and noses, and a pewter pendant hanging from their lower lip, the beetle-amulet, and a net over their tressed hair, form the sum total of their finery. Their huts are cylindrical with conical roofs of thatch. Their cisterns, storehouses, and utensils, show them to be by no means in the lowest state of civilization. The natives of Bertat are generally strong and well-made, having neither woolly hair, nor genuine negro features. They place great reliance on their priests and 'rain-makers,' like the Bechuanas of South Africa. Their women appear to be more modest and faithful than is usual among negroes. Maces and lances are their defensive weapons; horns and fifes form their military music. They carry on a bloody warfare with the Gallas. In Dinkah the men go naked; a goat-skin girdle is worn by the women. Both sexes shave their heads, and carefully depilate their bodies. The tribes farther south are said to be ferocious cannibals.

Authorities.] Burckhardt's *Travels in Nubia*. 4to. Lond. 1819.—Gau's *Neu entdeckte Denkmäler von Nubien*. Stuttg. 1821 to 1828.—*Journal of a visit to some parts of Ethiopia*. By G. Waddington. 4to. Lond. 1822.—*A Narrative of the Expedition to Dongola and Sennaar*. By Mr English. 8vo. Lond. 1822.—*Voyage à Méroé*. Par M. T. Cailliaud. Texte. 4 tom. 8vo. Paris, 1826-7.—M. Champollion's letters in the *Moniteur* of 1829-30; and M. Lenormant's letters in the *Revue Française* of 1829-30.—The chevalier Rienzi collected 12 4to. volumes of MSS. and 240 maps and drawings, a great part of which related to Nubian antiquities, during his recent travels in the East, but all these were unfortunately lost at sea when the chevalier was on his return to Europe.

ABYSSINIA.

Boundaries and Extent.] This vast country is situated on the eastern limits of Northern Africa. Its extent and limits have not yet been fixed with precision : for its northern and southern boundary lines are unsettled. According to Salt's chart it extends from N. lat. 9 to 15° 40'; and from E. long. 33° 40' to 41°. Pinkerton says it is 770 miles in length, and 550 in breadth. It is bounded on the N. by the Nubian State of Sennaar ; on the E. by the gulf of Aden and the Red sea ; on the S. by the country of the Gallas, the country of the Samanlys, and Mount Tchaka, which is a prolongation of the mountains of the Moon ; and on the W. by the country of the Shillooks. Its territorial surface has been computed by some geographers at 320,000, by others at 344,250 square miles.

Names.] This country corresponds to the southern part of the *Ethiopia supra Egyptum* of the ancients ; and the Abyssinians still call themselves *Itiopiawans*, and their country *Itiopia* : scornfully disdaining the names of *Abassi* and *Abyssinians*, which have been coined from the Arabic *Habesh*, signifying 'a mixed people.' They prefer, however, the appellation *Agasians* for themselves, and *Agasi* or *Ghes* for their country. By the Romans they were called *Axumites*.

Divisions.] Our topographical information regarding this so extensive country is very limited and obscure ; but the following are understood to be the provincial subdivisions of the country :

I. TIGRE ; comprehending the tract betwixt the Red sea and the Taccaze :

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Tigre Proper or Axum. | 7. Avergale. |
| 2. Agame. Chief town, Genata. | 8. Samen. |
| 3. Enderta. Chief town, Antalo. | 9. Temben. |
| 4. Wojjerat or Wogara. | 10. Sirah or Shiré. |
| 5. Wofila. | 11. Midre Bahar-negash. |
| 6. Lesta. | |

II. AMHARA, comprehending the provinces W. of the Taccaze : viz.

1. Amhara Proper, now almost entirely in the hands of the Edjow Gallas.
2. Dembea, with Gondar the capital.
3. Damut.
4. Gojam, or Agow-midre.
5. Bejender, or the Sheep-country.

III. SOUTHERN INDEPENDENT STATES of Shoah, Efat, &c.

History.] The Ethiopian work entitled *Turyk Negouchty*, being a chronicle of the kings of Abyssinia, remounts to a period considerably earlier than the Christian era. From Arwo, or the Serpent-king, to Menilek, or about 1000 B. C. this chronicle counts five kings, or rather dynasties. The 8th king subsequent to the Christian era was Za-Hakala or Skoskalas. Under the two brothers, Abraha and Azbaha, in 330 the Christian

religion was established in Ethiopia. It had been introduced by the Ethiopian eunuch mentioned in Acts viii. 26. It is evident that this Ab-
 raha or Abreha could not be the sovereign of that name who is represented
 by the Arabian historians as having led a mighty army against the city of
 Mecca, a short time after the birth of Mahomet, and to have been mi-
 raculously defeated. It would seem that the power of the Abyssinian
 monarchs was well-established in the 4th century, and that at this period
 they had extended their dominions into Arabia, and from Zella to the
 junction of the Taccase with the Nile. About the year 580 several
 Christian missionaries proceeded to Abyssinia with the view of rekindling
 the expiring embers of religion; and near the same period king Caleb or
 Elestean, in alliance with the emperor Justinian, fought several campaigns
 in Arabia against the Jews and Koreishites, and conquered a part of Ye-
 men. About 60 or 80 years after this period the Abyssinians were ex-
 pelled from Arabia by the Persians, who drove them across the Red sea,
 and even subdued a large tract of country on the African side of that sea.
 It is by the long residence of the Persians in this newly acquired territory
 that we must explain the fact of the existence of so many Persian words
 in the language of Abyssinia. Their mountains, and the physical features
 of their country, enabled the Abyssinians to preserve their natural existence
 and religion when assailed by the fanatic Mussulman borders. The Ze-
 gaic dynasty reigned for 340 years in this country. In 1368 the grandson
 of Shea reinstated a supposed branch of the ancient dynasty of Sheba on
 the throne. Among the princes of this dynasty, Amda Zuin, at the be-
 ginning of the 14th century, was a warlike and powerful prince. It is
 probable that the crusades were known to the Abyssinians, for about this
 epoch we find their princes abstaining from the customary pilgrimage to
 the holy land, and despatching a bishop to visit the holy tomb as their
 representative. This bishop having fallen into the hands of the Mussul-
 mans; was by them forcibly circumcised,—a circumstance which gave rise
 to a very bloody war betwixt the Moors and Abyssinians. In 1445 the
 Abyssinian emperor, Zara Yacob, sent an ambassador to the council of
 Florence, who declared for the Eastern church. The favourable reports
 which some Abyssinian priests who visited Europe made of their native
 country and its trade with the south of Africa, stimulated the Portuguese
 to those voyages in the course of which the cape of Good Hope and
 India were discovered. Father Corilhan, one of the Portuguese agents,
 presented himself in 1490 at the court of the Abyssinian *negus* or king,
 and prevailed on the *iteghe* or queen-mother to send an ambassador to
 Portugal. This event produced a great sensation throughout Europe;
 the Portuguese court acknowledged the Abyssinian envoy, and despatched a
 grand-ambassador on their part to the court of their new ally. A few
 years afterwards we find the Abyssinian king assisted by a force of 400
 Portuguese, in repelling the attacks of a fierce Mahommedan chief who
 reigned in the kingdom of Arras or Harrar, situated eastwards from the
 province of Choa. Many Catholic missionaries obtained access to this
 country during the subsistence of its relations with Portugal; but towards
 the end of the 16th century Abyssinia became less accessible to Europe-
 ans on account of the Turks having seized the maritime districts of
 Souakin and Massouah, and by the incursions of the hostile Gallas. The
 Jesuit Paes visited this country in 1603, and acquired so great influence
 at court that the emperor embraced the Roman Catholic religion; but
 the emperor Socinias abjured the new faith, and his son following his

father's views, expelled all the agents of the Propaganda from the country. In 1699, when the French physician, Poncet, visited Abyssinia, the court had been transferred to Gondar. In 1750 three Franciscans penetrated to this city, and acquired considerable influence at the court of Yasous II. who reigned from 1729 to 1752. In 1769 Bruce visited Abyssinia. Its next European visitor was Salt, in 1805, and again in 1809. It is solely to the relations of these travellers that we owe our present acquaintance with Abyssinia.

Mountains.] Abyssinia is entirely a country of mountains. It is described by some as a table-land, having a gentle inclination towards the N. W. A lofty range called *Lamalmou*, bars the entrance from the Red sea. The mountains of *Samen* in Tigre, between the Tacazze and the Coror, are still more elevated. To these we may add the mountains of Gojam, which give rise to the *Bahr-el-Azrek*, or Abyssinian Nile; the high land of Efat; the lower heights of Amhara in the S. W.; and finally a lofty range, which is said to run along its whole southern frontier, and forms probably a branch of the mountains of the Moon. To determine the precise height of these mountains is impossible from any data we possess. Mr Bruce, during his residence in Abyssinia, saw no snow on any part of them, and he asserts snow to be there entirely unknown. Mr Salt, however, in the month of April, observed snow on two of the mountains of Samen; and Mr Pearce, in crossing the same mountains, was overtaken by a snow-storm in the month of October. It seems clear, therefore, that these mountains, if they do not attain, at least approach the limit of perpetual congelation. The configuration of the Abyssinian mountains is peculiar: they shoot up in sharp peaks, and are usually ascended by means of ropes and ladders. The districts of Angola, Dembea, Damut, and the country of the Agows, are level and free of mountainous ridges.

Rivers.] The most celebrated river of Abyssinia is the *Bahr-el-Azrek*, or Blue River, which has its source in the country of the Agows, whence it flows into the lake Dembea, across which it passes without mixing its waters, so that its current remains always visible. It afterwards sweeps, in a semicircular course, round the provinces of Damut and Gojam, then flows in a northerly direction through Sennar, till at Wed Hogela, in lat. 16°, it unites with the Abiad, or principal branch of the Nile.—Next in importance is the *Tacazze*, which, rising to the west of Antalo, drains the mountains of Samen and Tigre, and flows by a N. W. course through Sennar into the Nile. Besides these are the *Araqua's* and *Mareb* which fall into the Tacazze; the *Dender* and *Maleg*, which fall into the Bahr-el-Azrek; the *Hanawo* and the *Hawash*, which lose themselves in the sands on their way to the Red sea. There are several lakes, of which Dembea is the chief, but we cannot pretend to give any particular account of them.

Climate.] Were we to attend only to its proximity to the equator, we might pronounce this a warm country; and, in many districts, particularly in the level lands upon the shores of the Red sea, it is actually so; but in general, the numerous mountains produce a temperature in the atmosphere which is seldom disagreeably warm, and sometimes, it is said, disagreeably cold. Some of the provinces enjoy a more temperate climate than Portugal or Spain. Thunder is frequent and violent; and that species of whirlwind known in America and some other warm countries by the name of *typhon*. In Abyssinia it is called *senda*. The rainy season lasts from

April to September ; during which time the country is drowned by a continual deluge. This rain is the chief cause of the annual inundations of the Nile. The finest months of the year are those of December and January. Abyssinia is in many places unhealthy even to the natives. To strangers it is much more so. Violent fevers, called *nedad*, are of frequent occurrence ; and, on the third day, frequently prove fatal. Tertian fevers are common ; as is a disease called *hanzeer*, consisting of a swelling in the glands of the throat and under the arms. The *farenteit*, or worm of Pharaoh, is occasioned by the use of bad water. A tubercle first appears on the legs, or somewhere on the lower parts of the body ; and in a short time the head of the worm appears above the skin. It must be carefully drawn out from time to time, winding it up as it is extracted. If broken before the whole length—sometimes a yard and a half—be extracted, the limb swells, and mortification frequently ensues. The elephantiasis—a disease which Bruce supposes to be erroneously denominated the leprosy or *lepra Arabum*, is by him represented as being a dreadful malady. It is endemial.

Soil.] On the mountains the soil is sometimes fertile, but more frequently barren. In the valleys, particularly on the banks of the Nile and its branches, the soil is very fertile.

Plants.] Abyssinia, from its fine climate, and the ranges of mountains with which it is every where intersected, which preserve the air cool and afford an abundant supply of water, is exceedingly fertile. Wheat is raised in considerable quantity ; but in the lower grounds the heat is too strong for this grain, which is therefore reserved for the food of the higher ranks. *Teff*, on the contrary, grows on every soil, and affords the bread which is in universal use. This plant is herbaceous. From a number of weak leaves rises a stalk about 28 inches in length, and not much thicker than that of a carnation. Out of the top springs a number of branches, which contain the seed or fruit enclosed in a species of capsule. The grains are not larger than the head of the smallest pin, yet so numerous as to constitute on the whole a bulky crop. Some of the lowest grounds are unfit even for the production of *teff* ; on these is raised a plant called the *tocusso*, which yields a black bread for the very lowest classes. Other important vegetable productions are : the papyrus,—the *balessan* or balsam plant,—*sassa*, myrrh, and *opocalparum* trees,—the plant *enseste*, said by Bruce to afford the very best of vegetable food,—the *Bankisia Abyssinica*, one of the most beautiful and useful of trees,—with many rare trees, plants, and flowers, affording an inexhaustible fund of study to the botanist. Mr Salt, in his two journeys, added to Botanical science 8 genera, and 128 species ; and an ample harvest, no doubt, remains for future labourers.

Animals.] From the great variety of its surface, and the uncultivated state of some of its districts, Abyssinia possesses a great number of wild animals. Among these, perhaps, the most numerous and characteristic is the hyena, called here the *dubbah*, which appears to be the fiercest and most untameable of all animals. In most parts of the country they are so numerous as to place travellers in continual danger. They even enter the houses ; and, though not gregarious, when attracted by some common object, such as the scent of dead bodies—which, according to the barbarous custom of the country, are often left unburied—assemble in vast troops. Elephants and rhinoceroses are numerous in the low grounds. They are hunted by the Shangallas, who use their teeth as an article of commerce, and feed upon their flesh. There is a species of rhinoceros with two horns found in a few districts. Its skin, which has no folds, is used

for shields, and its horns for handles to swords. The antelope is seldom found in the cultivated districts, but is common on broken ground near the rivers. The buffalo, domesticated in Egypt and elsewhere, is here one of the most ferocious of animals. He lodges himself in deep and sultry valleys, under the shade of the tallest trees, and near the largest and clearest rivers. Hippopotami and crocodiles abound in all the rivers; the former especially in the deepest parts of the Tacazze. The lion is met with occasionally, and there are several species of the leopard. The zebra is frequent in the southern provinces, where its mane adorns the collars of the war-horses. The domestic animals are not very different from those of Europe. The most remarkable is a species of Galla oxen, bearing horns of enormous magnitude. Mr Salt saw one of 4 feet long, and 21 inches in circumference at its root. The horses are strong and beautiful. The giraffe and zebra are sometimes met with.

Birds, Insects, &c.] The feathered creation in Abyssinia bears more than its usual proportion to the other kinds of animal life. The *nisser*, or golden eagle, perhaps the largest bird of the old continent, and a beautiful species, called the black eagle, are particularly noticed by Mr Bruce. To these Mr Salt adds a new species called *goodie-goodie*, the size of the common falcon. Storks, snipes, pigeons, and swallows, occur in great number and variety. Among insects, the most numerous and useful are bees. Honey constitutes every where an important part of the food of the inhabitants. Several provinces, particularly that of the Agows, pay a large proportion of their tribute in this article. The honey assumes different appearances: sometimes black, sometimes blood-red, according to the plant on which the insect feeds. The locust commits here ravages nearly as terrible as it does in all the other countries of northern Africa. Serpents are not numerous. A large fly is found, whose sting is said to be dreadful even to the lion. Fish are abundant in the rivers, and in the Red sea on the coast.

Minerals.] The mineralogy of Abyssinia is very imperfectly known. It seems remarkably destitute of metals; for the gold which passes through Abyssinia is brought from the barbarous countries to the south and west. One of the most important natural productions of the country consists in the great plain of salt, which occupies part of the tract between Amphila and Massuah. It covers a flat plain, about 4 days' journey across. For about half a mile the salt is soft, but afterward becomes hard like snow partially thawed. It is perfectly pure and hard for about two feet deep; but that lying beneath is coarser and softer till purified by exposure to the air. It is cut into pieces, which not only serve for seasoning to food, but even circulate as money. The digging of it is attended with considerable danger from the vicinity of the Gallas, who frequently attack those employed, as well as the caravans which convey the salt to Antalo. Their safe arrival at that city is therefore a subject of extraordinary exultation.

Inhabitants.] The Abyssinians are in their persons well-made; they are of a dark olive or bronze complexion, but have nothing of the Negro features. They have a great resemblance to the Arabs, from whom they are supposed to be descended. Their dress consists chiefly of a large piece of cotton cloth, which they wrap round them like a mantle; to which they add close drawers, reaching to the middle of the thigh, with a girdle of cloth. Their food consists of honey, the different species of grain already enumerated, and raw meat at festivals. The most general drink is *bouza*,—a species of sour beer made from the fermentation of cakes, particularly

those left at entertainments. Toccusso, the coarsest grain, produces bouza equal or superior to any of the others. Hydromel is also made in great quantities. Wine is only made in one district. Agriculture, the only art much cultivated, is in a very rude state. The ploughs are constructed from the root, or branch of a tree, and are drawn by oxen. The land is twice ploughed, after which the women break the clods. In the course of ripening, the crops are carefully weeded. The low lands, generally, produce two or three crops in the year. The worst grain is always reserved for seed. Every family in general cultivates the soil for itself; and, of course, very little is brought to market. The mass of the people, notwithstanding the overflowing fertility of the country, live most miserably on black teff and toccusso; and even persons of considerable distinction use little except teff and bouza.

Manners.] The most formal mode of concluding marriage is: when the lover, having made engagements with the parents, and obtained their consent (for that of the bride is seldom asked), seizes her and carries her home on his shoulders. A magnificent feast is then given of *brinde* and bouza, and at a fixed period of twenty or thirty days afterwards, they go to church and take the sacrament together. But it is in a few rare instances only that even this slight ceremony is used; in most cases the agreement of friends, and a plentiful administration of raw meat and bouza, form the only preliminaries. The will of either party, or of both, is at any time sufficient to dissolve the connexion. Mr Bruce mentions being in a large company at Gondar, where there was a lady present, with six persons, each of whom had been successively her husband, although none of them stood in this relation to her at that time; nor do either party consider themselves bound to observe, with rigid fidelity, this slight engagement even while it lasts. Morals may be considered in this respect as in a state of almost total dissolution in Abyssinia. When to all this we add, that they live in an almost uninterrupted state of civil war, it must cease to excite any thing like wonder to find them in a peculiar degree barbarous and brutal. The shedding of human blood is here beheld without emotion; and the life of man seems scarcely to be regarded above that of brutes. Mr Bruce seldom went out at Gondar without seeing dead bodies in the streets, left to be devoured by the dogs and hyenas; and officers of rank were to be seen acting as executioners upon numbers at once, who had been guilty of the most trivial offences; while the aversion to such shocking scenes, which he felt himself unable to suppress, was considered as a cowardly feature utterly inconsistent with other parts of his character.

Notwithstanding this horrible brutality of conduct and character, the Abyssinians are a gay people, and their festive indulgences are both numerous and excessive. The excellency of their entertainments, however, depends not at all upon the art of the cook, but upon the dexterity of the butcher,—the principal dish being beef-steaks, not warm from the fire, but cut warm from the haunch of the living animal, and devoured while they are yet vibrating with life, with a sufficient quantity of hydromel, or bouza. These feasts, which are called *brinde-feasts*, have been described with great minuteness by Alvarez, by Bruce, and latterly, with little variation, by Mr Salt.¹

¹ The table is first piled with teff-cakes, or what in Scotland are called *scones*, which serve the double purpose of food and towels for the guests to wipe their fingers. The company being seated, the cattle are brought to the door, and according to Mr Bruce—the fidelity of whose narrative there appears no reason for calling in question—amidst the bellowings of the animal, the cutting of the steak commences, which is set before the company with all possible expedition. It is incompatible with the rules of sustainable

Their habitations are extremely rude ; being, for the most part, merely hovels of a conic form, with thatch roofs. The houses of the sovereign and a few of the grandes are large and commodious ; but the principal display of architectural magnificence is upon the churches, which are very numerous, generally built on small eminences, and always encircled with a grove of cedars. They are round, and their thatched roofs, projecting considerably beyond the circumference of the fabric, are supported by cedar pillars, and form a species of colonnade.

Besides the Abyssinians or *Axomites* of history, modern Abyssinia contains the *Amharic Abyssinians*, who are of mixed origin ; the *Falarjahs*, or Abyssinian Jews, who are the smiths, masons, and thatchers of the country ; the *Maggrebins*, or Moors ; the *Gallas*, a powerful race of southern Central Africa ; the *Shargallas*, a woolly-headed, deep black race, the *Troglodytes* of the ancients ; the *Agows*, a stouter race of men than the Abyssinians ; and several other savage tribes.

Religion.] The Abyssinians are professedly Christians ; but Christianity is here, by a strange mixture of Judaical and Pagan observances, rendered utterly inefficient for renewing the heart or improving the life. They are Monophysites ; and in common with Jews, Papists and Mohammedans, they abstain from meats. They observe both the Jewish and Christian sabbath. Baptism is administered to, and circumcision performed upon both sexes. The patriarch of Cairo is the nominal head of the Abyssinian church ; and from him the *Abuna*, the resident head, receives his investiture. They have monasteries both of monks and nuns ; but even their professions of austerity are not very rigid. Their veneration for the Virgin is unbounded. Their saints are numerous ; and for miraculous powers, leave those of the Romish calendar far behind. Polygamy and divorce, Christianity, it would appear, has not even attempted to prohibit here. Marriage, accordingly, is a very slight connexion, formed and dissolved at pleasure. The marriage of priests is allowed as in the Greek church. In Europe, when we enter our churches, we show our veneration by uncovering the head ; an Abyssinian uncovers his feet. Whoever enters their churches, leaves his shoes at the door ; but if they be good, he should also leave one to take care of them, otherwise, before he return, they may be stolen by the priests. Persons who are unclean, according to the dictates of the Levitical law, presume not to enter the churches ; they perform their devotions at a distance among the surrounding cedars. In this situation, the greater part of the congregation generally make their appearance. But this is left to the conscience of worshippers ; and Bruce justly remarks, that, if there was either great inconvenience in the one situation, or great satisfaction in the other, the case would be otherwise. Upon entering the church, the worshipper kisses the threshold, and the two door-posts. He then goes in, says what prayer he chooses, and thus finishes his devotions. The Abyssinians agree with the Greek church, in banishing from their places of worship every work of sculpture ; but paintings are numerous, if those can be called paintings, which, to use Bruce's expression, resemble the paltry prints in our country ale-houses.

Life (for even here fashion and politeness are studied,) for an Abyssinian, at least in public, to feed himself. This is a task which devolves upon the females. The pieces of raw and living flesh, sprinkled with salt and pepper, the ladies roll up in teff bread, and cram into the mouths of their male companions, who are honoured in proportion to the quantity which is thrust into their mouths, and the disagreeable maffing noise they can make in devouring it. Hydromel or bouza washes down the whole. The women afterward feed themselves. They drink promiscuously till all are intoxicated ; and a scene of indecency too gross for our pages to describe closes the entertainment.

The Abyssinians receive the sacrament of the supper in both kinds. The bread is unleavened ; and, instead of wine, they use grapes, bruised and formed into a kind of marmalade. The grapes are administered to the communicants in a spoon ; and they receive the bread in quantities proportioned to their quality.

A ceremony which may be called purification by water, and which is performed yearly, induced the Jesuits to assert, that in Abyssinia every person was annually baptized.*

Language and Literature.] The *Gheez*, which is spoken in the kingdom of Tigre, and in which the books of the Abyssinians are written, is regarded by all the learned as a dialect derived from the Arabic. The *Amharic* language, used at the court since the 14th century, is softer than the *Gheez*, and spoken through at least half of Abyssinia, has also many Arabic roots ; but the dialect which prevails in Tigre has been ascertained to approximate very closely to the Ethiopic. The Agows speak a distinct language. According to Ludolf, the Falasjahs speak a corrupt Hebrew dialect.

Among a people so depraved and barbarous, any thing like literature is not to be expected. They use a liturgy ; and have a translation of the Scriptures, supposed to have been made from the Septuagint, by Frumentius, in 330. They likewise possess the Constitutions of the Apostles, from the Arabic,—a few of the Greek fathers,—the *Synaxar*, containing the lives of their saints,—and the Prophecies of Enoch. In computing time, they make use of the solar year. The names of their months are derived from some other language : since, in the Abyssinian, they have no meaning. They likewise distinguish time, according to the reading of the Evangelists, in the churches. These are read once every year ; and such an incident,

* Of the performance of this extraordinary ceremony, Bruce gives the following circumstantial narrative : “ The small river, running between the town of Adowa and the church, had been dammed up for several days ; the stream was scanty, so that it scarcely overflowed. It was in some places three feet deep, in some, perhaps, four, or little more. Three large tents were pitched in the morning before the feast of the Epiphany ; one on the north for the priests to repose in during intervals of the service ; and, besides this, one to communicate in. On the south, there was a third tent, for the monks and priests of another church to rest themselves in their turn. About twelve o'clock at night, the monks and priests met together, and began their prayers and psalms at the water side, one party relieving each other. At dawn of day, the governor, Welletta Michael, came thither with some soldiers to raise men for Ras Michael, then on his march against Waragna Fassil, and sat down on a small hill by the water side, the troops all skirmishing on foot and on horseback around them. As soon as the sun began to appear, three large crosses of wood were carried by three priests dressed in their sacerdotal vestments, and who, coming to the side of the river, dipt the crosses into the water, and all this time the firing, skirmishing, and praying, went on together. The priests with their crosses returned, one of their number before them carrying something less than a quart of water in a silver cup or chalice : when they were about 50 yards from Welletta Michael, that general stood up, and the priest took as much water as he could hold in his hands and sprinkled it upon his head, holding the cup at the same time to Welletta Michael's mouth to taste ; after which the priest received it back again, saying, at the same time, *Gzier y barak*, which is simply, ‘ May God bless you.’ Each of the three crosses were then brought forward to Welletta Michael, and he kissed them. The ceremony of sprinkling the water was then repeated to all the great men in the tent, all cleanly dressed as in gala. Some of them not contented with aspersion, received the water in the palms of their hands joined, and drank it there : more water was brought for those who had not partaken of the first ; and after the whole of the governor's company was sprinkled, the crosses returned to the river, their bearers singing hallelujahs, and the skirmishing and firing continuing.” Bruce observed, that a very little after the governor had been sprinkled, two horses and two mules, belonging to Ras Michael and Ozoro Eather, came and were washed. “ Afterwards the soldiers went in and bathed their horses and guns ; those who had wounds bathed them also. Heaps of platters and pots, that had been used by Mahometans or Jews, were brought thither likewise to be purified ; and thus the whole ended.”

may they, happened in the days of Matthew,—meaning that it happened during the time in which Matthew's gospel was read. The Gallas worship trees, stones, the moon, and some of the stars.

Government.] The constitution of the government is legally a despotism ; and a despotism of all others the least calculated to extend or to secure the comforts of the people. The power of the sovereign has no limits. There is no assembly of the people, nor any privileged order of nobles to control its exercise. It is at the same time managed with so little address, as to be set at defiance, not only by governors of provinces, but by every one who can collect about him a band of armed men. The *ras*, or governor of Tigre, whom Salt visited, supported a nominal king at Axum ; while Guxo, a Galla chief, had set up another sovereign. Civil war thus rages almost without intermission. The sovereignty is both hereditary and elective,—hereditary in a family, but elective among its various branches ; and thus the Abyssinians entail upon themselves all the evils of both systems without the advantages of either. The king is never seen to walk, nor to set foot upon the ground, except in his own palace. Riding upon a mule, he ascends to the presence-chamber, and alights before his throne. When any of his subjects approach him, they prostrate themselves in the attitude of devotion ; and, if any answer is expected, they lie in that posture till the king, or some one by his order, desires them to rise. He is perpetually beset by persons exclaiming for justice in all the tones of misery ; and, when the complainant fails to obtain redress in his own person, he can hire another to complain for him, whose fictitious sorrow is often, as elsewhere, more eloquent and more successful than his own. Punishments are, like the general manners of the people, barbarous and cruel ; such as the cross, flaying alive, stoning to death, plucking out the eyes ; &c. and the bodies are commonly left in the streets to be devoured by hyænas and dogs.

Commerce.] Abyssinia has little of manufacturing industry, or commercial activity. A few articles of indispensable necessity it fabricates within itself. Cotton-cloths, the universal dress of the country, are made in large quantities : the fine sort at Gondar, the coarse at Adowa. Being unable to dye the dark blue colour, which is their favourite one, they unravel the blue Surat cloths, and weave them again into their own webs. Manufactures of iron and brass are also considerable, the material being procured from Sennaar, Wolcayt, and Berbera. Knives are made at Adowa, and spears at Antalo. Sheep-skins are tanned in some places ; and at Axum they are made into parchment.—The foreign commerce of Abyssinia is carried on entirely by way of Massuah, whence the communication is maintained with the interior by the channel of Adowa. The imports are lead, block tin, gold foil, Persian carpets, raw silks from China, French broad cloths, coloured skins from Egypt, glass beads and decanters from Venice. The slaves are reckoned more beautiful than those which come from the interior of Africa. In considering this country with regard to its affording any opening for British industry, many difficulties present themselves. The staple manufactures, however, cloth and hardware, are such as British industry could probably execute better and cheaper than they are now produced, in which case some market would certainly be obtained for them ; for Cobbeh, the capital of Darfoor, which is 900 miles from Siout, is only between 500 and 600 miles from Gondar, and the greater part of the road is through a fertile country, instead of inhospitable deserts.

Chief Cities.] Of Tigre the first great division of Abyssinia, the capital

in *Adowa*, containing 9000 inhabitants. There is no communication with the interior but through *Adowa*; and the people have more of a commercial character, and are more civilized than those of other parts of the country. *Antalo*, which has for some time past, owing to the vicinity of the Gallas, been the residence of the *ras*, is the capital of the province of *Emderta*. It stands upon the side of a mountain, and is supposed to contain 10,000 inhabitants.—*Dison* likewise possesses a considerable trade.—*Arum*, the ancient capital of Abyssinia, is now nearly in ruins. It has an obelisk still standing, 80 feet high, composed of one single block of granite, and curiously carved. Mr Salt, after viewing all the remains of Egyptian architecture, gives this a decided preference. In the same place are scattered the ruins of 40 or 50 similar monuments. But the antiquities of Abyssinia, so far as at present known, are modern in comparison with those of Egypt and Nubia.

Amhara, the 2d division, contains Gondar and *Emfras*. *Gondar* is three or four leagues in circumference, having in time of peace, generally a population of 10,000 families. The houses are built of red stone, and roofed with thatch. It used to be the royal residence; but is now, with the whole province in which it is situated, in the hands of the Gallas. *Emfras* has about 300 houses, and a little trade in cloves and civet. In this province is the famous state-prison of *Gesher*, where the royal family are kept.

Of *Shoa* and *Efat*, the 3d division, forming now an independent State, the cities are *Ankober*, the capital, and *Tegulet*; but we are not possessed of sufficient materials to give any particular description of them.

Modern State.] "This country," says the ingenious editor of the *Modern Traveller*, "deserves to be better known. Its physical features might tempt the researches of a Humboldt. If it presents little to the antiquary, it opens a boundless field to the naturalist. The strong claims of the people, too, as a Christian nation, to the sympathy and assistance of Protestant churches, are enforced by the very critical state of Abyssinia at this period. Nearly twenty years ago, Lord Valentia and Mr Salt pointed out the importance of opening a direct communication between Abyssinia and this country. 'I cannot,' said his Lordship, 'but flatter myself, that Christianity in its more pure forms, if offered to their acceptance with caution and moderation, would meet with a favourable reception: at any rate, the improvements in arts and sciences which follow trade, would meliorate the national character, and assist in bringing back their own religion to a degree of purity which it has long lost. The restoring of tranquillity to the provinces, and a legal trade to the empire, would also have the very important effect of putting an end to the exportation of slaves, which here is not only liable to the same objections as on the western coast of Africa, but to the still greater one, that the slaves exported are Christians, and that they are carried into Arabia, where they inevitably lose, not only their liberty but their religion.' 'At the present moment,' says Mr Salt, 'the nation with its religion is fast verging to ruin. The Galla and Mussulman tribes around are daily becoming more powerful; and there is reason to fear that, in a short time, the very name of Christ may be lost among them.' It is remarkable that, weary at length of their fruitless dependence on the Coptic patriarch, the Abyssinians are at this time looking to the Armenian church for a supply of religious instructors; and there is reason to believe that a British *abuna* would be hailed with gladness. Ethiopia has long 'stretched out her hands' in homage to Christ: she now extends them in the attitude

of a suppliant, offering, in exchange for the blessings of civilisation and Scriptural knowledge, the ivory and gold of Sheba and the gratitude of unborn generations."

THE COUNTRY OF THE GALLAS.] The Gallas, as we have already seen, are pretty numerous in Abyssinia, and inhabit a large extent of country immediately to the S. of it. They are divided into a number of tribes, each of which has its own chief. One of the most powerful tribes is that of *Boren*, which seems to have made the most successful inroads on Abyssinia. Next to them are the *Edjoms* or *Edjos*. These two tribes appear to have made some advances towards civilization; but all the rest are yet in a state of extreme barbarism. They inhabit the districts of *Anget*, *Ball*, *Caffa*, *Canbat*, *Narea*, *Fatgar*, *Gonderow*, *Guraghe*, etc. and have established a kingdom called *Gingiro* or *Zondero*, in the interior of Africa, of which the capital is called *Bocham*. It is impossible to determine the origin of the Gallas; the Abyssinians consider them as the aboriginal inhabitants of the eastern coast of Africa; but they appear to bear a closer resemblance to the nomade tribes of central Southern Africa. Attracted by the increasing fertility of the country, they seem to have gradually advanced northwards, and to have remained in the neighbourhood of Melinda and Soko for about two centuries. They are of nomade habits, and are distinguished from the Negroes by a less dark complexion and long hair. They anoint their bodies with grease, and will sometimes twist the intestines of animals round their limbs to serve them as food while engaged in distant expeditions. Their warlike expeditions are generally performed on horseback; their principal weapon being a lance armed with an iron point. Polygamy is known amongst them, but is little practised. Bruce says that they adore the moon, the stars, and some species of trees; and Salt informs us that the more civilized Gallas generally embrace Mahommedanism.

ADEL AND AJAN.

THE kingdom of Adel, on the eastern coast of Africa, extends from the straits of Babel Mandel, or the frontiers of Abyssinia, to Cape Guardafui. This country is sometimes called *Zeilah* from a sea-port of that name on the Arabian sea. It is bounded on the W. by the countries of *Gingiro* and *Belubba*. Towards the S. E. the country is altogether a desert; but the soil in other parts is luxuriant. A considerable number of cattle are reared. The cows have horns as large as those of the stag; the sheep have a dewlap which nearly reaches the ground, proving the identity of this species with the ram occasionally represented on ancient marbles. The inhabitants are called Berbers by the Arabian geographers; their complexion is olive, but their features do not in the least resemble those of the Caffres. Their religion is Mahommedanism. They conduct a trade in slaves, gold, silver, ivory, oil, honey, frankincense, and a sort of pepper. The *Navach*, or *Hamsa* waters the western part of this territory; but appears to lose itself in the sands. The principal towns are *Zeilah*, the capital, chiefly inhabited by the *Avalites*; *Barbara*, or *Berbera*, an ancient trading port to the S. E. of Zeilah; and *Aucagurel* or *Auxa*, S. W. from Zeilah, in the interior. This State was formerly subject to Abyssinia; but in 1535 the Adeliens placed themselves under the protection of Turkey. They are governed by an iman.

Ajan.] The territory of Ajan lies along the Indian ocean, between Adel and Zanguebar, or Cape Guardafui and Magadoxo. It is a country

almost entirely unknown. The inhabitants on the coast are Arabian Mahomedans; those of the interior are Negroes, and worship fetiches. Their country is divided among a multitude of petty States, amongst which some geographers reckon the republic of *Brava*, which strictly, however, belongs to Zanguebar.

DARFOOR AND KORDOFAN.

We shall now sketch the geography of a few districts which are occasionally included under Nigritia, but which appear to us to follow naturally the description of the Nilotic countries, their inhabitants being in general either pure Arabs, or a mongrel race professing Mahomedanism, and being, both by local situation and commerce, closely connected with the States bordering on the Red sea and Egypt.

Boundaries and Extent.] Darfoor is bounded on the E. by Kordofan, an inconsiderable State, by which it is separated from Abyssinia, and part of which it has recently subdued; on the N. by the Desert, and on the N.W. by part of Bergoo; part of the western frontier is bounded by Bergoo,—the rest of this frontier, and the whole of the southern frontier, are bounded by various petty Negro-kingdoms. If the map constructed from Browne's travels in Africa be correct, it is situated between 11° and 16° N. lat. and between 26° and 29° 30' E. long. Its length is consequently 345 British miles, and its breadth 230 miles. This region was scarcely known to Europeans, even by name, when Browne visited it in 1793, and reached Cobbeh.

Physical Features.] The country rises towards the S.; and a chain of mountains extends along the eastern frontier. The surface is highly diversified.

Soil and Climate.] Darfoor, situated among surrounding deserts, has a soil of a nearly similar character. It seems to be rendered capable of cultivation only by the existence of springs of water, and the periodical rains which are common in all tropical regions. This country has neither lake nor marsh; but water abounds in the southern districts,—which are watered by the *Ada*, a branch of the Bahr-el-Abiad. The rainy season commences with the middle of June, and terminates in September. If the quantity of rain be less than is necessary to bestow sufficient moisture for vegetation, the country is subjected to all the horrors of famine. The rain, which is generally heavy, and accompanied with lightning, is said to fall chiefly between three in the afternoon and midnight. The winds in Darfoor, unlike those in Egypt, are not periodical. The S.E. wind, as it blows from the nearest sea, brings the greatest quantity of rain. The N. and N.W. winds are refreshing, but blow seldom. South winds bring the greatest heat. From this quarter proceed blasts, which are said to fill the air with thick dust; and which seem to be similar to the simoom of Egypt, and the harmattan of the western coasts of Africa. Browne observed pillars of sand, but they had not that tremendous appearance which Bruce ascribes to those which he saw in the neighbouring wilderness.

Like the ancient kings of Egypt, and the modern kings of Bornou, the sovereign of Darfoor annually evinces his regard for agriculture, by going out into the field, and, with his own hands, performing the process of planting or sowing. The grain is sown at the commencement of the *harif*, or 'wet season,' and at the return of fair weather, it is ripe; the ears are gathered by the women and slaves. After they are thrashed, the grain is

dried in the sun, and laid up in holes made in the earth, lined with chaff. Millet, rice, maize, sesame, beans, and legumes are reared. The date-palm and tamarind are found here. Tobacco grows wild. The domestic animals are the camel, sheep, and goat.

Commerce.] Darfoor, from its situation, can only have an inland commerce; but this is extensive. The grand intercourse is with Egypt, and is carried on by the African system of caravans. The exports to Egypt consist chiefly of slaves taken in the Negro countries to the south,—camels, ivory, the horns, teeth, and hides of the rhinoceros and hippopotamus,—ostrich-feathers, gum, pimento, paroquets, and a small quantity of white copper. The imports are extremely various, comprising beads of all sorts, toys, glass, arms, cloth of different kinds, chiefly made in Egypt, with some of French manufacture, red Barbary caps, small carpets, silks wrought and unwrought, shoes, &c. There is also a considerable intercourse with Mecca, in which the objects of trade are combined with those of religion. Commerce is conducted entirely by barter; which greatly increases the difficulty of conducting it.

Inhabitants, &c.] In their persons, the Darfoorians differ from the Negroes on the coast of Guinea, though their complexion is quite black, and their hair generally short and woolly. The Arabs, who are numerous, retain their distinction of features, colour, and language. The greatest part of their food consists of grain, generally maize, pounded in a mortar, and formed sometimes into a pudding, and sometimes into thin cakes. Like all rude nations, abstinence is a virtue to which they are inured, and hunger and thirst are endured with a patience which is seldom to be met with in civilized society. They are unwearied dancers, and each tribe seems to have its appropriate dance.

The Foorians are indifferent Moslems. At the time of Browne's visit, Islamism had not been established in this country more than 150 years. Their religion allows them four wives, a privilege of which all who can afford it take advantage. The nobles have a greater number; and Teraub, one of their late kings, when he travelled, generally took 500 along with him, besides leaving as many at home! These women are considered as a kind of servants; and are obliged to perform every species of domestic drudgery, and to labour in the fields. The ablutions prescribed by the Koran are not scrupulously performed, nor are they remarkable for personal cleanliness. In defiance of the law of their prophet, a fermented liquor called *merise*—the same with the *bouza* of the Negroes—is universally indulged in by persons of all descriptions, and of both sexes. Browne, who visited this country, and from whose statements almost all our knowledge of it is derived, accuses the people of vices which in the greater part of countries are unknown. According to him, "every species of incest is so common as to meet with little blame. The vices of thieving, lying, and cheating in bargains, with all others nearly or remotely allied to them, are almost universal. No property, whether considerable or trifling, is safe out of the sight of the owner, nor indeed scarcely in it, unless he be stronger than the thief. In buying and selling, the parent glories in deceiving the son, and the son the parent; and God and the prophet are hourly invoked to give colour to the most palpable frauds and falsehoods."

Mr Browne found it difficult to form a very precise idea of the population; but as the army did not exceed 2000 men, which was even considered as large, he did not conceive that the whole population exceeded 200,000. *Cobbeh*, the capital, in N. lat. 14° 11', E. long. 28° 8', has not more than 6000

inhabitants, who are almost all foreigners. They consist chiefly of merchants, and come partly from Egypt, and partly from the eastern countries of Dongola, Sennaar, and Kordofan. Arabic is almost as generally spoken as the language of the country, and lawsuits are conducted in both languages.

Government.] The government is despotic. The monarch cannot safely violate the Koran; but beyond it his will has no limits. The ministers of religion hold a rank next to the officers of state; and alone have a right to make remonstrances, but possess no power of enforcing them. A more formidable power resides with the army; and no sovereign can safely incur the displeasure of that body. The royal revenue is derived from various sources: viz. a duty on all merchandise imported, amounting to about a tenth; fines for misdemeanours, and to which is added, in case of murder, a certain proportion of the property of the village in which it is committed; presents continually received from the great men, merchants, and all descriptions of persons; a tribute imposed on the neighbouring Arab tribes; and lastly, the king's profits as a merchant, exporting and importing a great quantity of goods, for which he has means of procuring a market not possessed by private individuals.

Towns.] To the N.E. by N. from Cobbeh is *Hellat Hassan*, inhabited altogether by the people of Dongola. The other principal towns are: *Sueini*, the frontier town on the N.,—*Ril*, the former capital, 60 miles S.S.E. from Cobbeh, on the route to Sennaar,—*Koubcabsia*, inhabited by Foorians, Arabs, and Bergoos,—*Kourma*, a small town 12 miles W. by S. of Cobbeh, occupied by merchants, chiefly from Upper Egypt, called *Jsiara*,—and *Kours*, inhabited by merchants and the brutal set of people called *fokaras* who here as elsewhere affect great sanctity.

SUBORDINATE DISTRICTS.] Among the subordinate districts, which are sometimes dependent on the Foorian sultan, sometimes upon the neighbouring powers, are *Dar Rugna* which is generally subject to the sovereign of Bergoo,—*Dar Berti* or *Bega*, between Foor and Bergoo,—and *Zeghawa*, formerly an independent kingdom. Among the southern countries, whither the Jelabs of Foor and Bergoo sometimes journey to procure slaves, is *Dar Kulla* on the river *Bahr Kulla*.

KORDOFAN.] This country lies between Darfoor, on the W. and Sennaar on the E. On the S. it is bounded by a chain of volcanic mountains inhabited by the Nubas, one point in which, *Koldagi*, is said to smoke continually and emit ashes. This district is poorly watered, and of course ill-cultivated; the principal produce of the soil is maize and dourra. Gold dust is collected near Chaboun. The greater part of the inhabitants are Arabian Mahommedans of the tribe of *Bakara*, whose manners and language are the same as those of Darfoor; the rest of the population are distinguished by all the characteristic traits of the Negroes of tropical Africa, except that of projecting cheek-bones. The *Nubas* are a gentle and industrious race; they cultivate the soil, weave cotton-stuffs, and forge iron. The different tribes speak peculiar dialects. *Ibeit* is the name of their principal town. The governors of Kordofan were deputed by the mek of Sennaar, till of late years, when this prerogative was usurped by the sultan of Darfoor. The recent expedition of the pasha of Egypt's son extorted a promise of submission from both Kordofan and Darfoor; but we have no doubt both districts have already renounced their extorted allegiance.

DARBIA.] The missionary Kugler has recently communicated some interesting particulars relative to a tribe and region in the interior of Africa,

which he obtained from an individual belonging to it, during his residence in Egypt. The name of the people is *Magagina*, and the country which they inhabit is called *Darbia*, and is about 300 miles S.W. from Darfoor. There are three considerable rivers in this country: the largest of these is the *Led* or 'White River,'—the second is called *Karo* or the 'River of Reeds,'—and the third is the *Gililo* or 'Black River.' The soil of *Darbia* is very fertile; but nobody claims a property in it. It sometimes snows in this country, but the snow melts as it falls to the ground. The *Magagina* are a free people, and governed by good and just laws. They have a headman or chief; but personal merit is the only ground of rank with them. Adultery is punished with death; and the practice of ordeals exists. The *Magagina* are an active and industrious people; but have few wants, and no coin or circulating medium. They have an idea of a Supreme Being, and of the immortality of the soul, and the existence of guardian angels. They have a great annual festival, at which their whole tribe meet on the banks of a river with their great priest; the people bathe, and the priest marks the sign of the cross on the chest of each person with mud from the river. Besides the great priest, they have a sheikh or senior in every considerable hamlet, who prays for the sick when requested. Circumcision is in general use, though not imperative on any. Their language has many sounds in common with the *Amharic*.

Authorities.] Legatio Magni Indorum, Lusit. 1513.—Ludolfi Habessinia ad exempl. tab. chor. P. B. Tellezii 1683.—Alvarez Hist. de Ethiop. fol.—Ebn Hankal, Orient. Geog.—Bruce's Travels.—Valentia's Travels.—Murray's Dissertations.—Salt's Travels into Abyssinia in 1809–10. Lond. 1814.

BARBARY.

CHAP. I.—GENERAL REMARKS.

Boundaries and Extent.] Barbary, the most northern general division of Northern Africa, is bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean; on the E. by Marmarica and Egypt; on the S. by the Sahara; and on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean. Its utmost extent from E. to W. is nearly 2,600 British miles. Its breadth, in a direct line from N. to S. is very unequal; and has been variously estimated according to the proportion of the desert which has been included under the appellation. At the widest part it cannot exceed 556 miles; at the narrowest part it is not above 140 miles.

Name.] Various conjectures have been formed respecting the etymology of the word *Barbary*. Some have derived it from the general appellation *Barbari*, which the Romans when they conquered the country are supposed to have applied by way of eminence to the inhabitants of Northern Africa. Others suppose it to have originated with the Arabian conquerors, in whose language *barbar* signifies 'a murmuring noise;' and who may have given this name to the country as indicative of the indistinct articulation of the native languages. Others consider it as a repetition of the word *bar*, 'a desert.' Bruce supposes that the term may be equivalent to *Barbaria* or *Berberia*, 'the country of the Berebers,' that is, of the shepherd-race.

History.] Barbary is one of the earliest known regions of Africa. The Phœnicians navigated along its coasts above 1000 years before our era. A colony of this people under Dido, founded the celebrated Carthage here in 886 B. C. After the destruction of that city, the Romans disputed the possession of Barbary with the Moors, Getulians, Numidians, Africans, Libyans, Cyrenæans, and Marmarides. Having at last obtained the undisputed sovereignty of this country, the Romans divided it into the five provinces of *Pentapolis*, *Cyrenaica*, *Africa Propria*, *Numidia*, and *Mauritania*. In the time of Constantine, that part of the country which lies to the E. of the Greater Syrtis, or gulf of Sidra, was a dependance of the province of Egypt; that which lay to the W. of the Mullavia appertained to the province of Spain; and the country between these two regions formed a distinct province, known by the name of *Africa*. In 428 the Vandals passed into Africa, and soon rendered themselves masters of all that the Romans had possessed in that quarter of the globe. The career of these fierce conquerors was marked by devastation and blood; but, about the year 530, Belisarius recovered Barbary for the Greek emperor, and it formed a part of the Eastern empire until torn from it in 697 by the resistless arms of the Mahomedan Arabs. Under its first Saracen princes, Northern Africa flourished in sciences and art, and almost regained its pristine grandeur. A period of gradual decline succeeded. The Saracens, after having planted their standard in the most valuable provinces of Spain, found themselves at last unable to maintain a footing even in Africa itself. They called in the Turks to their aid; and these latter conquerors laid the foundation of those maritime States of Barbary which have so long harassed the Christian powers of Europe by their piratical

depredations. The time was when Moorish cruisers lay under Lundy island in the Bristol channel, to intercept traders going from Ireland to the fair of Bristol.

Divisions.] The country of Barbary, soon after its subjection to the caliphs, was divided into a multitude of petty sovereignties; but these have been so continually varying, both as to their particular number and relative strength, that it is impossible either to enumerate or describe them with minute accuracy. The chief of them at present are: the empire of Morocco on the west and south; the piratical States of Algiers and Tunis in the centre; and Tripoli, with its dependency, the Desert of Barca, on the east.

Physical Features.] The Sahara, and the Atlas mountain-system, are the great physical features of this region. We have already described the latter in our general introductory view of the African continent; and the former will occupy a chapter in our present article.

Inhabitants, Manners, Religion, &c.] In every thing that respects manners and customs, civil or religious, the inhabitants of the different States of Barbary are so entirely alike, that in order at once to avoid repetitions and afford the fullest view of the subject, we shall comprise our remarks on these points, for the whole of Barbary, under this head. The inhabitants of Barbary are divided into three principal tribes: the Moors, Arabs, and Berbers.

The Moors.] The Moors form the majority of the population in the towns and cultivated plains. Their exterior indicates them to be of mixed origin,—a melange of the ancient Mauritanian, Numidian, Phœnician, Roman, and Arabian inhabitants of this country. Their skin is more white, their features fuller, their nose less prominent, and their whole physiognomy betrays less of energy than the Arab exhibits in his entire person. They are divided into numerous tribes, bearing some resemblance to the *clans* of Celtic origin. Even in the appellations by which they are known, this resemblance may be traced. *Ben* or *Beni* signifying ‘son,’ is prefixed to almost the whole of them, like *Mac* among the Scottish Highlanders, and *O* among the Irish. This division into tribes is here, as elsewhere, unfavourable to the progress of civilization. Individuals seek the honour of the clan to which they belong by every method whether justifiable or not; and their quarrels generally involve the whole tribe. In this manner, animosities are rendered perpetual, and a ferocious prejudice is deeply rooted in the mind. Within the narrow circle in which they act, the affections may frequently be strong; but they are too much confined ever to expand into that benevolence which, while it consults the universal good of humanity, certainly forms one of its most amiable features.

The Moors are further distinguished into two general classes: such as inhabit the cities,—and such as dwell in tents, leading a pastoral life. But the difference between them is not much greater than that which, in other places, subsists between the inhabitants of the towns and of the country. The former possess more of what is called politeness,—the latter are more rude and perhaps more ignorant. Some have supposed the inhabitants of the cities to be Arabs, while those who inhabited the country were the true Moors; but this distinction seems to be without any real foundation. The Moors who lead a pastoral life dwell in a kind of tents, called *douhars*. The figure of the douhar is conical; in height from 8 to 9 feet, and from 20 to 25 in length; having, it is said, a striking resemblance to a boat reversed, the figure ascribed to them by Sallust. A number of them

generally stand together, forming a small village in a circular form. Into the centre the cattle are driven at night: the entrance being shut up with bundles of thorny shrubs.

The houses in the cities have seldom more than the ground-floor. They are flat on the top, to which the inhabitants frequently ascend to enjoy the fresh air. The outside is generally white-washed. The best apartments are removed from the streets. None of them have either windows or fire-places; they receive their light through large folding-doors, and the victuals are dressed in an earthen stove, in a square court, which always occupies the centre of the building. The furniture is simple, and generally mean. On the floor is laid a small mat or carpet; over this is a mattress covered with fine white linen. Chairs and tables are equally unknown. In some apartments, where grandeur is studied, a bedstead is found, fixed up in the European manner; but this to the proprietor is entirely useless; he sleeps upon the same mattress upon the floor, during night, on which during the day he sits in a cross-legged posture. On the walls are sometimes seen mirrors, clocks, and time-pieces, in cases of glass; but arms are not unfrequently the only ornaments of which a room can boast; and instead of hangings, it is not unusual to find the skins of lions or leopards. Pictures are prohibited by their religion. The doors are sometimes ornamented with sculpture; but every resemblance of a living creature is carefully avoided. The carving consists of those fantastic figures to which has been applied the name of *moresque*,—a name indicating that this style of ornament originated among the Moors.

The dress of the Moors in the country, consists of a piece of woollen cloth, five ells in length, and an ell and a half in breadth. This is called a *haique*. It is thrown over the shoulders, and fastened round the body. By day it is their dress; and by night their covering, when asleep on their mattresses. A Moor who has a *haique* for summer, another for winter, a pair of slippers, a red cap, and a hood, has all that the luxury of dress requires. The dress in town is little different; the *haique* is perhaps of finer quality, but the fashion is the same in all places and at all times. *Lana*, unknown to the inhabitants of the villages, is worn in the towns, in the form of shirts and drawers. To the dress is likewise added an upper garment, called a *caftan*, made of cloth in winter, and in summer of cotton. The winter hood, in towns, is of coarse blue European cloth. The women in the country wear *haiques*, like those of the men. The ornamental parts of their dress consist of ear-rings, bracelets upon the arms, and rings upon the ankles. On different parts of their bodies they form representations of flowers, by wounding the skin with the point of a needle, and filling the puncture with gunpowder, or some other dark-coloured substance, which renders the mark indelible. This custom is in no respect different from what, by our late navigators, has been termed *tattooing*; and which prevails among so many rude tribes. It is said, however, not to be universal among the Moors. The hair, the feet, and ends of the fingers are dyed of a deep saffron colour with *henna*.

The Moorish ladies, who inhabit the cities, differ little in the fashion but considerably in the costliness of their ornaments. When at home, indeed, the town-lady is perhaps more slovenly than one of the country: her whole dress, in this case, often consisting merely of two shifts fastened round the waist. When she dresses, she puts on a shift of fine linen, of which the part which covers the breast is embroidered with gold; her *caftan* is of fine cloth, or velvet, and is likewise embroidered with gold, and

bowed round the waist by a girdle of crimson velvet, no less richly embroidered, fastened with a buckle of gold or silver. The head is surrounded with several folds of gauze, wrought of gold and silk. This gauze is fastened behind, where part of it is suffered to hang down, inter-mixed with the hair, as low as the waist. The slippers are yellow; the stockings are made of fine cloth, and tied under the knee and at the ankle; ear-rings, bracelets, and rings for the legs, all of gold or silver, are constantly worn. Paint is sometimes used, but seldom of any other colour than white; and the eyebrows and the eyelashes are frequently darkened. Instead of that slender form which we so generally consider handsome, the Moors esteem only such females as are fat; and much care is taken to procure, in young women, that degree of plumpness which is reckoned necessary to make them agreeable.

The inhabitants of this part of the world are characterised by a certain gravity of demeanour, which however proceeds not from thought but from total vacancy of mind. Unacquainted with literature, and unoccupied by business, their minds shrink into themselves, and become in some degree torpid. Over the female sex they exercise the authority of tyrants; they know nothing of the delicacy of lovers; hence they are as ignorant of the art of pleasing as of being useful. Trained up in the most abject submission to his superiors, the arrogance of a Moor to his inferiors is equally great; and the want of mental cultivation deprives that arrogance of even the appearance of delicacy. Climate too exercises its enervating influence, and renders him no less averse to bodily than to mental exertion. The necessities of life are procured with little labour; and what little taste he may have acquired for its delicacies or its elegancies is not sufficiently powerful to rouse him from his native apathy.

While receiving his visitants, a Moor never rises. He takes them by the hand as they approach him, and desires them to sit on a carpet or cushion placed on the floor for that purpose. Without respect to the hour, tea is immediately introduced. They drink it out of small cups, and often prolong this entertainment two hours. Coffee was formerly very much used; but after the English made presents of tea to the sultans, the use of this beverage soon spread to the lowest ranks of society. Snuff and tobacco are also used; the latter is smoked from a wooden pipe 4 feet long. Instead of opium—which multiplied taxes have rendered too expensive—*achica*, a species of flax, is substituted. Wine, and every kind of spirituous liquors, are prohibited by their religion; but almost every Moor prefers his taste to his creed, and uses these articles without scruple whenever he can procure them. Breakfast is introduced immediately after daybreak. Twelve is the hour of dinner; and supper—which here, as among the old Romans, is the principal meal—is introduced at sunset. The breakfast consists of a thin mixture of flour and water, to which, by means of a certain herb, a yellow colour is given. At dinner *cocoosoo* is always presented. This dish is composed of a kind of meal, made into paste. It is inclosed in a hollow vessel, with holes in the bottom, and being placed in the vapour of a kettle in which meat is boiled, is thus gradually softened. Among the common people it is eaten with milk or butter. The rich generally add to it some kind of nourishing broth. Knives and forks are unknown; the meat is torn in pieces, and the *cocoosoo* is conveyed to the mouth with the fingers.

No man above the lower ranks ever visits a friend without mounting his mule; and when two friends meet who wish to converse, instead of walk-

ing about in the manner of Europeans, they squat down on the first clean part of the street they can find. Nor is it at all uncommon to have carpets spread before the doors of the houses, upon which the proprietors seat themselves, to receive the visits of their friends, without allowing them to come within doors. Parties of this kind may often be seen covering almost every part of the streets. The salutation of equals consists in first shaking and then kissing each other's hands. An inferior shows his respect to his superior by kissing that part of his garment which covers the arm, and sometimes by kissing his feet. At the approach of the emperor or of any of the princes of the blood, the head is uncovered and bowed to the ground. Frequent inquiries are made concerning the welfare of each party, and of their friends; but these inquiries, like our own sometimes, are so rapid as seldom to admit of a reply. In the conversation of a Moor his horse always claims the first place. In this respect he is not excelled by the jockeys of any country. This animal, indeed, occupies a very prominent place in the social polity of the Moors. Several of the emperor's horses have been raised to the dignity of saintship! Of politics the Moor neither can nor dare think, much less speak; and his religion is implicitly adopted from the Koran. Music is much relished in the country, as it commonly is among such as lead a pastoral life. Their slow airs are said to have too much sameness. Their quick tunes are allowed to be better, and are said to have some resemblance to the favourite airs of Scotland. The instruments with which their songs are accompanied, or which are used in producing a species of harmony, are: a kind of rude hautboy without keys,—the mandoline, borrowed from the Spaniards,—the common pipe,—the tabor, and the drum. On all public, and the greater part of private rejoicings, bands of these instruments play favourite airs; and the whole is constantly attended with reiterated volleys from the fire-arms of the rejoicers. Among an illiterate people, such amusements as call for no vigorous exertion of the mind are eagerly courted. Frivolous conversation, dancing, feats of activity, and the narration of marvellous stories, form a great part of Moorish entertainment. Public dancers, and jugglers of different kinds, make frequent exhibitions; and a species of wandering story-tellers, ready to amuse with the wonders of fabulous narrative, meet with eager attention.

Where every man is liable to be made a soldier, and where the greater part possess arms and horses, it is natural to suppose that an imitation of military evolutions should afford frequent entertainment. Unlike the Europeans, the Moors, even in their military capacity, endeavour to fire as irregularly as possible. In the management of their horses they display an amazing dexterity. They use a very powerful curb; and by continued exercise, their horses are accustomed, while running at full speed, to stop instantaneously. In this manœuvre, so great is the dexterity of the horse and his rider, that a Moor will ride against a wall with the utmost velocity; and, while the terrified stranger imagines that the next step must dash out his brains, the curb is applied with instantaneous and unerring dexterity, and the horse stands motionless within an inch of the wall.

Like every Mahommedan, a Moor is allowed to have four wives, and as many concubines as he thinks proper; but the privilege is expensive, and is generally exercised only by the rich. Warm climates produce early puberty. The Moorish girls are often wives at twelve years of age. Parents claim the sole power of contracting their children; and the parties seldom see each other till the marriage be concluded.¹

¹ This custom is not confined to Morocco, it is common in every country where the

When the contract has been settled before the *cadi*, preparations are made for the approaching nuptials. The bride receives, for eight days, the congratulatory visits of her friends, and the admonitions of a priest concerning the duties of that situation into which she is about to enter. The bridegroom, during the same time, receives the visits of his friends in the morning; and, at night, rides out amidst a crowd, and parades the streets, accompanied with music, drums, and volleys of fire-arms. When the day of marriage arrives, the bride is put into a small carriage, or rather cage, which is carried upon the back of a mule. Concealed in this vehicle, by gauzes, and silks of different colours, she traverses the streets, amidst a company of her friends, who are careful not to forget music and volleys of fire-arms. She at length reaches the house of the bridegroom, who arrives soon after from his evening parade. He enters an apartment where she has been placed alone; and finds her, decked in her richest ornaments, seated on a cushion, with her hands over her eyes. Without farther ceremony, he receives her as his wife; and the rejoicings and feasting of the respective friends are continued as long as the circumstances of the parties will permit. The husband is expected to remain at home eight days,—the wife eight months after marriage. If a husband suspect his wife's virtue, he may divorce her: but although the male sex in this country is chiefly favoured by law, the female is not entirely neglected. If the wife can prove that her husband affords her not proper subsistence, she may divorce herself. For the first time that a husband curses his wife, he is obliged to give her eight ducats; for the second time, a dress worth a greater sum; and for the third, she may leave him. The children of all the wives claim an equal share of their father's property; a concubine's children are confined to half a share.

When a person is thought to be dying, he is immediately surrounded by his friends, who begin to scream in the most hideous manner, to convince him there is no more hope, and that he is already reckoned among the dead. The moment a death happens in a family, the alarm is given by the shrill screaming of the words *woulliah woo*, which are repeated incessantly by the relations, and every body in the house. These cries, heard at a great distance, bring every female acquainted with, or dependant on the family, to scream over the dead, and mourn with the nearest relations of the deceased. They likewise hire a number of women, who make this horrid noise round the bier, which is placed in the middle of the courtyard of the mansion; these women scratch their faces to such a degree, that they appear to have been bled with a lancet at the temples; after the ceremony is over, they lay on a sort of white chalk to heal the wounds and stop the blood. These women are hired indifferently at burials, weddings, and feasts; at the two latter they sing the song, *loo, loo, loo*, and extempore verses. Their voices are heard at the distance of half a mile. It is the custom of those who can afford it, to give, on the evening of the day

different sexes are not permitted to enjoy free intercourse; and, in such countries, it is by no means a hardship so great as in nations where men and women are daily permitted to see each other. He who has never seen a woman's face, except that of his mother or sisters, cannot be supposed to be prepossessed in favour of any particular woman. She to whom he is betrothed by his parents, may be as likely to please him as any other. At any rate, if he can afford it, he has the chance of four, all of whom he can divorce for very slight reasons. The hardship is confined entirely to the woman. If the husband to whom she is given displeases her, she has no second choice. But, perhaps, it is fortunate, that a woman has here no opportunity of forming a strong attachment to the person who is to be her husband, since she is continually liable to see the place she wishes to occupy in his heart filled by a more favoured wife.

the corpse is buried, a quantity of hot-dressed victuals to the poor, who come in immense crowds, to secure each his portion; this they call 'the supper of the grave.' The dead are always dressed for the grave; the ears, nostrils, and eyelids are stuffed with a preparation of camphor and rich spices. The tombs are neatly whitewashed, and kept in constant repair; flowers are planted round them, and no weeds suffered to grow above them. Small chapels are generally built over the tombs of persons of rank, and decorated with flowers placed in large China vases.

Arabic is the language spoken by all the Moors in the northern parts of Africa; but the corruptions and deviations from the purity of the original are said to be nearly in proportion to the distance of the country from Arabia. In the written language, however, the deviations are perhaps not so great as in that which is spoken; and among the courtiers, and such as aspire at the honours of learning, the Arabic is said to be spoken in much greater purity than among the vulgar. This departure from the original is no where, in the north of Africa, so great as to render the speech and writings of one country unintelligible to those of another. The wild tribes, which inhabit the mountains, speak a language altogether different from that of the Moors, and quite unintelligible to them. This has been supposed to be the original Punic or Numidian. The conjecture is not void of probability, but the proof might perhaps be difficult. Even among these tribes, the Koran exists only in Arabic. The Mahommedan religion is an inveterate enemy to knowledge and literary pursuits: since it is requisite, that every Mussulman, or true believer in Mahomet, should adopt it as one part of his creed, that the Koran contains every thing necessary to be known,—that whatever agrees with this book is virtually found within it,—and, that whatever differs from it, must be impious. The Moors, it is true, particularly such of them as had their origin in Spain, applied successfully to different branches of philosophy; but that they were not always sound Mahommedans, may be conjectured, from the well-known saying of Averroes, one of their most celebrated philosophers; who asserted, that "Christianity was absurd, Judaism the religion of children, and Mahommedanism the religion of swine." Astronomy and medicine were much studied by the Spanish Moors; and the progress made by them in those departments of knowledge was by no means despicable. But their descendants in Barbary, far from following the same path, receive less benefit from the labours of their ancestors, than any other nation. When we reflect that their priests are now their only physicians, and that these priests can hardly read the Koran, it would be absurd to expect from them much theoretical knowledge. They know the virtues of a few simples; but they are too little acquainted with the nature of diseases to apply them with propriety. Their knowledge, or rather their ignorance of astronomy, may be inferred from their notion of eclipses. They imagine that an immense dragon, then, attempts to devour the sun and moon, and they offer prayers for their deliverance! Magic and astrology, those deceptions which can never long be companions of true knowledge, have, in this country, very many votaries. In writing, instead of a pen, a common reed is used. The manuscript proceeds from right to left. Time is computed by lunar months and weeks. The era used by the Moors, and by all Mahommedans, is the Hegira. The Mahommedan Sabbath falls on that day of the week which corresponds to our Friday; on this day, instead of a white flag, a black flag is hoisted. During the year, three periods occur, which, by the Moors, are dedicated to religion. The first to cele-

brate the birth of Mahomet, on which the principal ceremony seems to be, that, such as can afford it, kill a lamb to be divided among their friends. The second called *Ramadan*, commemorates the flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina. At this time, during thirty days, no man presumes to taste animal food from sunrise to sunset. This fast is concluded by a feast which continues a week. The third is a day set apart by every Mussulman, to compute the value of his property; that a tenth of it may be applied to pious purposes, but chiefly to the relief of the poor. It is, perhaps, somewhat to the honour of the Moors, that this festival is more magnificently celebrated than any other.

The Arabs.] The Arabs of Barbary are partly the descendants of the Arabian conquerors of this country, and partly emigrants from the Sahara. Like the Moors, they are divided into a number of tribes, which never intermingle by marriage, and which are almost continually at war with one another. If united among themselves, they would prove the ruling nation in Barbary. They live in tents which have preserved the boat-like shape attributed by Sallust to the *mapalia* of the Numidians; and generally form their encampments at a considerable distance from any town. Their women, destitute of personal attractions, enjoy a great degree of freedom. Their occupation is that of herdsmen; they likewise raise a little wheat and barley.

The Berbers.] The mountains and desert of Barbary are inhabited by a race, which has undoubtedly an origin different from that of the Moorish or Arabian tribes, since their language is different. Of these tribes, which are denominated *Brebers*, or *Berbers*, we have already, in our general account of Africa, given some notice. In Barbary they present rather a warlike character. Accustomed from their infancy to dangers and hardships of every kind, they acquire a vigour, agility and courage, unknown to their more effeminate neighbours. They are only nominally subject to any existing government: for, when they are offended, they retire to their mountains, whither it would be dangerous to follow them. Their adherence to the Mahomedan faith is of a kin to their submission to government: only so far as suits their convenience. They reckon themselves free, and esteem their freedom as that which, above all things, ought to be considered sacred and inviolable by man. They are divided into several tribes, each governed by a sheikh; and form at present four distinct nations: 1st. The *Amasirgh*, called by the Moors *Shulla*, or *Shulla*, in the mountains of Morocco; 2d. the *Cabyle*, in the mountains of Algiers and Tunis; 3d. the *Tibboos*; and 4th the *Tuaricks*.

The Tuaricks and Tibboos.] The *Tuaricks*, who, Hornemann says, are the most interesting nation of Africa, are most extensively spread over Northern Africa, and indeed divide with the *Tibboos* the whole of the Sahara; the latter occupying the wells and the wady's of the eastern, and the *Tuaricks* those of the western portion of this sterile belt. The poor peaceable *Tibboos* are constantly exposed to the predatory excursions of the fierce and warlike *Tuaricks*, who carry on their marauding expeditions to the very frontiers of Bornou and Seodan. These *Tuaricks* vary in colour, in different parts of the desert, from almost black to nearly white, and they seem to take pains to preserve their complexion, not only by being clothed from head to foot, but also by covering the face up to the eyes with a black or coloured handkerchief. They have not embraced Moslemism, although they observe some few of its external ceremonies; their language is nearly similar to that of the Berbers.

Negroes, Jews, &c.] Besides the tribes already mentioned, this country is inhabited by Negroes, who are purchased as slaves, but treated with much humanity; renegadoes, who have generally abjured a religion to which they were never rationally attached, for one to which their attachment is still less; and Jews, who are said to possess the greater part of the knowledge, and almost the whole trade of the country. The intolerance and oppression which this singular people suffered in Spain and Portugal drove vast multitudes of them to seek shelter among the barbarians of Africa. It has been loosely stated that 100,000 took refuge in Morocco, and about half that number in the other Barbary States. The stock, however, had long before that event taken root in this quarter of the world, and in all probability was transplanted together with the original settlers from Phœnicia. No insult, indignity, or oppression prevents the Israelite from domiciliating himself, wherever he happens to fix his abode. He is a plant that seems to be suited for every soil, and generally thrives best where the pruning-knife is most applied. Among the Moors he is made to suffer beyond what any nature but that of a Jew could bear; yet such is the ignorance of the ruling powers and their Moorish subjects, that the affairs of state could hardly be carried on without him. Most of the trades and professions are exercised by Jews; they farm the revenues; act as commissaries and custom-house officers, as secretaries and interpreters; they coin money; furnish and fabricate all the jewellery, gold and silver ornaments and trappings for the sultans, beys, and pashas, and their respective harems; and in return for all this, they are oppressed by the higher ranks, and reviled and insulted by the rabble. They live chiefly in the great towns, confined to a particular quarter. The Jewish women are generally very handsome, and individuals of them are often 'perfection's self.' "Among the higher classes of the Jews, who can afford to build large houses," says captain Beauclerk, "it is customary for all branches of the family to live together. Thus you may see five or six generations in the same tenement, all looking up to the father of the whole as a patriarch, and treating him with great respect and kindness. This sight, I must say, is very gratifying. The Jews in this country are a very fair specimen of objection to the argument which has often been advanced that the human race degenerates by breeding *in and in*, (if the sportsman's term may be allowed me for want of a better one, expressive of the same signification, applicable to man.) It is impossible to find a finer race of men, or a more angelic one of females, than are these people."

CHAP. II.—THE SAHARA.

Extent and Boundaries.] The Great Desert, called in Arabic *Zahara*, or *Sahara*, extends, in the ordinary acceptation of the term, from Egypt and Nubia to the Atlantic ocean, and from the foot of Mount Atlas to the banks of the Niger. Including the desert of *Bilma*, and that of *Libya*, in the term, the Sahara is bounded on the N. by Barbary; on the E. by Egypt and Nubia; on the S. by Nigritia and Senegambia; and on the W. by the Atlantic. Between these boundaries, its length, from E. to W. will be 1100 leagues; and its mean breadth, from N. to S. 250 leagues. Ritter calculates its superficial extent in round numbers at 50,000 German square miles.

Names.] The ancient Greeks gave the general appellation of *Libya* to the whole portion of the African continent which lay to the W. of the

valley of the Nile, but seem to have distinguished the extremely desert parts by the term of Inland or Interior Libya. The Romans applied the term *Desertum Africae* to the whole of Nigritia likewise, as far as it was known to them. The Arabian geographers are the first who applied the term *Sahara* or *terra Sahara*, that is, 'the waste land,' to a portion of the African continent. This term is variously written by these geographers; we have found it *Zahara*, *Sahra*, *Sarra*, and *Sahar*. Ritter derives the appellation *Saharacin* (Saracens) from the Arabian name given to this country; but Langles has derived *Charagyn*, another form of the word, from *chary*, 'eastern.' This district has likewise been called by the Arabians *Sahara-bela-ma*, that is, 'the waterless waste;' and *Sahara-ul-aski*, or 'the complete waste.'

Physical Features. This immense tract, which is yet only imperfectly known, seems to be a flat table-land, little raised above the level of the sea, and covered with ever-shifting sand. Here and there a few rocky heights occur, and some valleys where a little moisture affords nourishment to a few stunted thorny shrubs, ferns, and grasses. The mountains along the shore of the Atlantic are detached and solitary; towards the interior they lose themselves in a plain covered with white and flinty pebbles. The principal western elevations are the *Djebel Khal*, the *Black Mountains*, and the mountains of the *Mousselmynes*. The mountains of *Tibesty* run from E. to W. in the eastern part of the Desert. No river of any importance waters this torrid region; there are only a few springs which, after watering the oases, lose themselves in the thirsty soil. Towards the W. however, in the vicinity of the coast, we find a few streams of some magnitude, the most remarkable of which is the *Saint-Cyprian* river. In the eastern portion of the Sahara there are several salt lakes, of which the most considerable appears to be that of *Domboo*, supposed to be the *Chelonidean* marsh of Ptolemy.

Bays and Capes.] The principal bays which occur on the coast of the Sahara are: The bay of *Portandik*; the bay of *Levrier*; and the bay of *Arguin*, which is bounded on the W. by a vast sand-bank, and a reef of rocks, which have often proved fatal to ships, and which encloses a small island of the same name with itself, supposed to be the ancient *Cerne*, with which the Carthaginians carried on a considerable commerce. The capes are: Cape *Juby*; Cape *Bojador*; and Cape *Blanc d'Arguin*, which after Cape Verd, is the most western point of Africa.

Climate and productions.] For a great part of the year the dry and heated air of the Sahara has the appearance of a reddish vapour, and the horizon looks like the fire of a series of volcanoes. The rain, which falls from July to October, does not extend its precarious refreshment to all the districts. On the extreme southern border of the desert, forests of gum-trees present themselves; throughout the rest of it a grove of date-trees, or any other tree, is a very rare sight. An aromatic plant, resembling thyme, acacias, nettles, and brambles, constitute the ordinary vegetation. At Tégazza and some other places, sal-gem lies in extensive strata under a bed of rock. Some monkeys and a few gazelles find subsistence on the scanty vegetation. Ostriches also occur here in numerous flocks; their chief food seems to be lizards and snails. Lions, panthers, and serpents, add to the horrors of these frightful solitudes.

Inhabitants.] The Sahara comprehends a great part of *Libya Interior*, which was inhabited by the *Garamantes* and *Getules*. In the present day several barbarous tribes reside in the less arid portions of this district. The

Tibboos occupy the E. parts. In the centre we find the *Tuareks* whose chief settlement is Agades. The *Brabichas* have established themselves towards the S.W. The gum-forests between Cape Blanco and the Senega are in the possession of three tribes: the *Trarsas*, whose chief settlement is in the oasis of Hoden; the *Aulad-el-Hadgi*, and the *Ebraquana*. All the three are of Arabian origin and live in camps. The people called *Mousselmènes* live to the N. of Cape Bojador, between Morocco and the Desert. Their life is intermediate between the pastoral and the agricultural state. Their country is populous, and their government republican. The *Monguarts* live between Cape Bojador and Cape Blanco. They are a ferocious inhospitable race of people. Arts and trades are not altogether unknown to these barbarous tribes; they even practise some of them with skill. Their weavers, with the simplest portable looms, make stuffs of goat and camel hair; their tanners have the secret of manufacturing morocco-leather; they have their itinerant goldsmiths and jewellers, who make bracelets, chains, filigrees, and arabesque ornaments, with no small skill and taste; and their armourers fabricate sabres and poniards of great beauty.

Caravans.] The caravans or *akkabahs* which cross the Sahara do not proceed in a straight line, but turn sometimes westward sometimes eastward, according to the position of the different oases. They use the polar star for direction; and often prefer travelling during the clear nights of these climates, rather than brave the intense heat of the day. These caravans obtain an escort from each tribe through whose territories they pass.

Oases and Towns.] The principal oases are: that of *Goualata* on the W.; *Touat*, with its capital of *Agably* in the centre; and *Arben*, a considerable district towards the S., with the two towns of *Agades* and *Acouda*.

CHAP. III.—TRIPOLI—BARCA.—FEZZAN.

Extent and Boundaries.] Tripoli is the most easterly of the Barbary States. It consists of a line of coast, extending from Cape Razatina to Port Bomba, a distance of nearly 800 miles. Its extent inland is very irregular, owing to the frequent interruption of the desert. Tripoli Proper is bounded on the E. by the desert of Barca; by Fezzan on the S.; and on the W. by Tunis and the Country of dates.

Name.] This country appears to have acquired the name of *Tripolis*, as a distinct district or province of the Western empire, on account of its containing the three cities of Leptis, Oea, and Sabata, probably about the middle of the 1st century. Similar appellations were given to districts of country by the ancients: thus we have *Pentapolis* applied to Cyrenaica, and *Decapolis*, a district of Palestine.

Divisions.] This portion of Barbary is generally considered as comprehending not only Tripoli Proper, but the country or desert of Barca, the kingdom of Fezzan, and the oasis of Gadames. The bey's authority in these regions is so weak that they might almost be treated as independent states. We shall, however, introduce our description of them here, as our limits are too confined to admit of our treating all the petty States of Africa in distinct articles.

History and Present state.] After the destruction of Carthage, Tripoli became a Roman province; and as the Roman power declined in Africa, the boundary of civilized manners and cultivated land was immensely con-

tracted. In the reign of Valentinian, the Getulians appeared at the gates of the Tripolitan cities; and the inhabitants, unprotected by their venal prefect, were compelled to join the rebellious standard of a Meor. In an evil hour count Boniface invited the assistance of the Vandal king against his rebellious subjects. "On a sudden," says Gibbon, "the seven fruitful provinces, from Tangiers to Tripoli were overwhelmed by the invasion of the Vandals." A series of desolating wars in the reign of Justinian completed the ruin of Roman Africa. Under the caliph Omar, the Mahomedans, crossing the desert of Barca, first invaded Tripoli. His successor Akbah, marched from Damascus at the head of 10,000 Arabs, traversed the wilderness in which his successors erected the splendid capitals of Fes and Morocco, and at length penetrated to the verge of the Atlantic and the Great Desert. On the dissolution of the caliphate, Tripoli became an independent State. In the 16th century it fell into the hands of the emperor Charles V., who had landed in Africa as the ally of the Moorish king of Tunis, and who gave it to the knights of Rhodes. The Turkish corsair, Dragoot Rais, expelled the knights from Tripoli in 1551; and after the death of Dragoot, the Porte continued to send governors to Tripoli, under the titles of sanjak and pasha, till 1713, when it was erected into an independent State by Hamet Pasha, a native of Caramania, who reduced to subjection the turbulent mountaineers of Garian and Mesurata, and rendered Fezzan a tributary province. He also invited intelligent foreigners to settle in Tripoli, and greatly exerted himself to improve its industry and manufactures. Like the other sovereigns of Barbary, the monarch is perfectly despotic. Yussuf Pasha, who is now (1830) at the head of the government, raised himself to that dignity by the murder of his brother; and though he administers public affairs with no very gentle hand, seems to have more liberal views than most of the rulers of that unhappy continent. He studiously cultivates the alliance of Britain, courts intercourse with, and affords facilities to her subjects for exploring the interior of his dominions, from which most important results, both with regard to science, and the progress of knowledge among his own people, may, we think, reasonably be expected. Indeed captain Beechey, who visited this country in 1822, says that this State is now secure under the protection of an established government; that property is respected and commerce is improving; that its markets are well-supplied, its manufactures are encouraged, and its population appears to be increasing.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.] The soil along the coast is, for a few miles inland, of exuberant fertility, producing every article peculiar to the finest tropical climates in the utmost luxuriance, and the greater part of European vegetables. The Indian wheat grows here from 5 to 6 feet high, and barley yields twice as much as it does in Europe. But for the absurd policy of the government which prohibits it, grain might be exported to a large amount. The same law applies to horses and mules, the breed of which is cultivated with the greatest care; but bullocks, sheep, and poultry, are reared in immense quantities, and, owing to the small quantity of animal food consumed by the natives, afford an ample article of exportation. The fruit of Tripoli generally possesses an exquisite flavour. In the interior, which is sandy and barren, dates—which are here of a quality superior to any other to be found in Barbary—form the staple. They are of a yellow, brown, green, black, and red colour. The latter are termed horse-dates, and are given as food to that animal. The date-tree here attains a height of nearly 100 feet, and bears clusters weighing from 20 to

30 pounds. Here also is found in great quantity, the *lotus*,—celebrated in antiquity, as the food of the *Lotophagi*, a race of savages. The tree is lofty and umbrageous; the fruit is contained in a pod not unlike that of a tamarind. When ripe, it is sweet and nutritious, tasting somewhat like gingerbread. An important part of the popular diet, is formed of the nutritious flour of the *cassob*, a plant unknown in Europe. It rises in the form of a reed, with a spike on the top containing the seed, which is small and of a lead colour. They have another small grain something similar, which has been introduced from Soodan. Cotton has been cultivated very successfully, and the mulberry and castor-tree.—Gold dust is found in the sand on the sea-shore; and whole veins of this precious metal occur inland as we approach to Fezzan.

Trade and Commerce.] The trade of Tripoli is very considerable, though that with Europe is confined chiefly to Malta and the Levant. The exports are: wool of excellent quality, senna and other drugs, madder-root, barilla, hides, goat and sheep-skins dressed, salt, natron, ostrich-feathers, gold-dust, ivory, gum, dried fruit, lotus-berries, cassob, saffron, bullocks, sheep, and poultry. The imports are: cloths of every quality and colour, Manchester stuffs, sugar, tea, coffee, spices, spirits, wines, gold and silver-tissues, laces and threads, cochineal, indigo, iron, hardware of all kinds, muskets, pistols, sword-blades, &c. with naval stores of every description. The annual caravan from Morocco to Mecca, combining commercial with religious purposes, passes through the city of Tripoli; and caravans from the interior generally arrive twice a year with slaves, gold-dust, &c. which are exchanged for coarse European cloths, silks, baricans or cloaks of the country, powder, muskets, hardware, glass-beads, toys, looking-glasses, &c.

It is this latter branch of commerce with Central Africa, conducted by means of caravans from Fezzan and Ghadames, which forms the foundation of Tripolitan commerce. Moorzook, the capital of the dependent state of Fezzan, is the great depot of merchandise from the interior. In the months of December and January, caravans from Vadai, Bornoo, Cashna, Soccato, Haoussa, and Timbuctoo, arrive at Moorzook; and exchange their commodities for Genoese paper, real and false corals, imitation pearls, printed cottons, silk stuffs, small mirrors, pistols, fire-arms, needles, razors, turbans, amber, porcelain vases, coffee-cups, copper vessels, caftans, embroidered muslins, white handkerchiefs, striped cotton or white calicot shirts, fine white calicots which are highly prized at Bornoo and throughout Nigritia, essence of roses, and spices. The merchandise which the caravans bring from the central countries of Africa chiefly consists of slaves, gold-dust, trona, senna, ostrich-feathers, red alum, and ivory. The total number of slaves thus annually sold is estimated by M. Graaberg, the Swedish consul-general at Tripoli—to whose notice of Tripolitan commerce published in the *Antologia* of September 1827 we are indebted for these details—at 2,500. The quantity of gold dust, exclusive of the tribute, amounts to 10,000 *metacalli*, or about 1,500 ounces, of which about one-third is used in Tripoli for the purposes of money, and as ornaments for females; and the rest is exported to the Levant and Europe. *Trona* is a kind of natural mineral alkali which is used in the manufacture of glass, and the dyeing of linen, and for several domestic purposes. The quantity annually brought to Tripoli amounts to 7,000 cantaros. The senna of Fezzan is esteemed next in quality to that from Sidon in Syria; about 3,000 cantaros are annually brought to Tripoli. The ostrich-plumes annually imported into Tripoli are valued at from 15,000 to 18,000 piastres.

They are usually sold by the skin : and that of a male is reckoned worth double that of a female-ostrich. They pay a duty of 10 per cent. on their estimated value to the Tripolitan government. About 4,000 cantaros of alum are annually consumed in Tripoli ; the quantity of ivory annually brought to Tripoli seldom exceeds 15 or 20 cantaros.*

All this merchandise is conveyed to Tripoli on camels, each of which carries from 4 to 5 cantaros weight, and is valued at from 35 to 45 piastres. These animals, especially the *Mherri* or dromedary, are admirably fitted for the long journeys thus performed. As so much time is necessarily spent on these mercantile expeditions, a great deal is entrusted to the good faith of correspondents and agents, who are seldom found to betray the trust reposed in them. The town of Audjelah, in the oasis of that name, has long conducted a brisk trade of transit with Fezzan, especially since 1814, when, after many unsuccessful attempts to traverse the Libyan desert, a direct communication was opened with Borgoo, Vadai, and Baghermi, without passing through Fezzan. The negligence of the Tripolitan government allows the profits of this commercial intercourse to flow into the pockets of the speculators in Grand Cairo ; while the same supine indifference or extreme ignorance, has permitted a new commercial route by the way of Gorbi to be opened between Tunis and Moorzook.

Although the Fezzan and Ghadames caravans are the most important in respect of commercial wealth, the most considerable in point of numbers are those which pass through this country, from Morocco and Western Barbary to Mecca. These latter caravans are chiefly composed of such persons as are performing that pilgrimage to Mecca, which all true Mahommedans are enjoined to make, at least, once in their life-time ; but mercantile speculations are conjoined by many with their religious motives. The numbers composing these caravans have greatly diminished of late years, as the greater part of the pilgrims from Western Barbary now embark in Christian vessels for the port of Alexandria, and the pasha of Tripoli allows only a few of his own subjects to make this pilgrimage. M. Graaberg says, that the only caravan of this kind which he witnessed during four years' residence in Tripoli, was one in 1824, which consisted of about 3000 men, a few hundreds of women and children, and 2000 camels. It had set out from the city of Fez in Morocco ; and journeying by Telonsan, and along the coasts of Algiers and Tunis, had arrived with considerably diminished numbers at Tripoli. It was commanded by an Emir-al-hoggias, a native of Kairwan in Tunis. Having rested about a month under the walls of Tripoli, the pilgrims resumed their route, part by sea, and the greater part by land ; of the latter, one party travelled by way of Alexandria and Cairo, while another took the route of Audjelah,

* The following table exhibits the comparative price which the several articles of merchandise now enumerated bear at Tripoli :—

Black eunuchs from 650 to 700 Spanish pia.

Black male slaves from 90 to 100 pia.

A boy from 10 to 18 years of age, 70 to 80 pia.

A child under 10 years of age, 40 to 50 pia.

A black female slave, 120 to 150 pia, according to their beauty.

A girl not marriageable, 90 to 100 pia.

A girl under 10 years of age, 50 to 60 pia.

Gold dust, per metacallo, 2½ pia.

A plume of male ostrich-feathers, 20 to 25 pia. ; a plume of female ostrich-feathers, 10 to 13 pia.

Senna, of which there are three different qualities, 10 to 13 pia. per cantaro.

Trona, 2½ to 3 pia. per cantaro.

Ivory, 45 to 50 pia. per cantaro.

and were joined at the oasis by other pilgrims from Fazzan and the interior of Africa. These Mecca caravans carry with them gold dust, wax, ostrich plumes, silk and cotton *bouracans* or *haiques*, muslins, morocco leather, perfumes, *khol* a kind of eye-pinguent, henna, *suak* a vermilion pigment, and a variety of medicinal drugs. On their arrival at Tripoli the pilgrims exchange a part of these articles of merchandise for European goods. On their return from the east, in about one year after, they bring Indian stuffs, pearls, Mecca balsam, musk, wood of aloes, incense, myrrh, civet, Cashmir shawls, precious stones, coffee, pistachios, naphtha, opium, and in general all the productions of Asia and Europe; but they are in general unwilling to open their packages at Tripoli, as their profits are much more considerable in their own countries.

Population.] The population of this State and its dependencies is estimated by Cortambert at 2,500,000; and by Stein at only 1,350,000 souls. "There is probably no country on earth," says Mr Blaquiere, "where the inhabitants are more inclined to be vicious; yet such is the promptitude with which justice is administered, that crimes bear but a small proportion to those of European countries. I have been unable to discover any of those good qualities that can be put in contrast with their well-known attributes of revenge, avarice, treachery, and deceit, which predominate alike in the prince and the peasant." Yet, in no part of Barbary, we are told, has civilization made so great progress; and in no place is so much respect paid to Christians, even their religious ceremonies being here treated with the utmost respect. Nay, Mr Blaquiere adds, that their sensual passions "are infinitely better regulated than those of any other people on the coast of Barbary;" and upon the whole, it would seem, that Tripoli presents by no means an unfavourable specimen either of the Moorish character or of the Barbary governments.

Marabouts.] The Marabouts, or Mahommedan *fakirs*, are most extraordinary personages. They are of two classes: "idiots who are allowed to say and do whatever they please,—and men possessed of all their senses who, by juggling and performing many bold and disgusting tricks, establish to themselves the exclusive right of being the greatest rogues and nuisances to be met with. There are mosques in which these people assemble every Friday afternoon, and where they eat snakes, scorpions, &c. affecting to be inspired, and committing the greatest extravagancies." Once a year they celebrate a barbarous festival, which lasts three days, and at which no Christian or Jew can with safety make his appearance. Captain Lyon, however, had boldness enough to witness the whole orgies of these wretches, and we subjoin his account of them in a note.²

² "I certainly felt," he says, "that my situation was a very dangerous one; but, being resolved on the attempt, and telling the man to follow me closely, I dashed in with the crowd, and succeeded in getting near the saints, who, with disbevelled hair, were rapidly turning round, and working themselves into a most alarming state of frenzy. A band of barbarous music was playing to them, while several men were constantly employed in sprinkling them with rose-water. Had I been discovered, my life would have been in great jeopardy; but, fortunately, I was able to keep my countenance, and to pass unnoticed; and when the performers were sufficiently inspired, I sallied out with them, and followed through the streets. One had a large nail run through his face, from one cheek to the other, and all had bitten their tongues in so violent a manner, as to cause blood and saliva to flow copiously. They were half-naked, at intervals uttering short groans and howls; and as they proceeded, (sometimes three or four abreast, leaning on each other,) they threw their heads backwards and forwards with a quick motion, which caused the blood to rise in their faces, and their eyes to project from the sockets to a frightful degree. Their long black hair, which grew from the crown of the head, (the other parts being closely shaven,) was continually waving to and fro, owing to the motion of the head. One or two, who were the most furious, and who continually

City of Tripoli.] The city of Tripoli, by the natives called *Tereblen*, is built upon a neck of land projecting into the sea, and is surrounded by a high wall flanked by six bastions. The batteries are mounted altogether with 50 pieces of cannon, and it is considered impregnable to Moors and Arabs. It has a number of mosques, caravanseras, and bazars. One of the latter is appropriated to the sale of woollens, Levant produce, and slaves from the interior. The police is extremely well-regulated; and in point of cleanliness, Tripoli, unlike most other Moorish cities, might be a model for the best of those of Europe. Acts of violence are never committed in the streets, though wine-houses are public, and intoxication by no means uncommon. The harbour is not very spacious, but is safe throughout the year, and admits frigates, not drawing above 18 feet of water. "Previously to entering the bay," says the author of 'Tully's Memoirs,' "the country is rendered picturesque by various tints of beautiful verdure. No object whatever seems to interrupt the evenness of the soil, which is of a light colour, almost white, and interspersed with long avenues of trees; for such is the appearance of the numerous palms, planted in regular rows, and kept in the finest order. Their immense branches, coarse when near, are neat and distinct at a distance. The land lying low and very level, the naked stems of these trees are scarcely seen, and the plantations of dates seem to extend for many miles in luxuriant woods and groves. On a nearer view, they present a more straggling appearance, and afford neither shelter nor shade from the burning atmosphere which surrounds them. The whole town appears in a semi-circle, some time before reaching the harbour's mouth. The extreme whiteness of the square, flat buildings, covered with lime, which in this climate encounters the sun's fiercest rays, is very striking. The baths form clusters of cupolas, very large, to the

attempted to run at the crowd, were held by a man on each side, by means of a rope or a handkerchief tied round the middle. As we passed through one of the streets, a party of Mahometans and other Christians were discovered on a terrace, and were instantly supplied with showers of stones. I observed that whenever the Marabouts passed the house of a Christian, they affected to be ungovernable, and endeavoured to get near it, pretending they made the discovery by smelling out unbelievers. After following for an hour or two, during which I witnessed the most horrible and revolting scenes, I returned home, when, to my great amusement, I learned that a rumour prevailed of my having been attacked and very ill-treated; and that I had, in defending myself, stabbed a Marabout, and run away, no one knew whither. I was happy to be enabled in person to contradict these reports, and to prove that I had escaped not only unhurt, but unobserved. There were two parties who traversed the town; but, from their being of opposite sects, and at war with each other, it was so arranged, that they should take different routes. That which I did not see, was the superior one, and took its departure from under the walls of the castle. It was headed by a man named Mohammed, who had been much at our house, going on errands, and attending our horses. I did not until afterwards know he was so celebrated a character. Before the time of the procession, he was confined in a dungeon, in consequence of becoming very furious. When all was in readiness for the ceremony, the bashaw took his station in the balcony overlooking the arsenal, and this man was set at liberty; when he rushed on an ass, and with one thrust pushed his hand into the animal's side, from which he tore its bowels, and began to devour them. Many eat dogs and other animals; and on that day, a little Jew boy was killed in the street, either by the Marabouts or their followers. As the power of taking up serpents and scorpions is supposed to constitute a Marabout, I determined on acquiring that honourable title. Mr Ritchie bought some snakes, which we all learned to handle; and I soon found out an effectual way of taking up the largest scorpions without the slightest chance of being stung. However, in order to observe the ceremonies practised by these pretended saints, I sent a servant in search of one of the most celebrated, under pretence of wishing myself to become a Marabout. This fellow went through numberless prayers and ceremonies, spitting in my hands, taking rose-water in his mouth, and sprinkling my face with it, reciting occasional prayers, and then washing his own mouth and hands in rose-water. After bottling up this sacred fluid, he told me to drink it on a particular day, which he named, and I should then be as highly gifted as himself; thus concluding his instructions, which, of course, I did not think myself bound to observe."

number of 8 or 10, crowded together in different parts of the town. The mosques have in general a small plantation of Indian figs and date-trees growing close to them, which, at a distance, appearing to be so many rich gardens, give the whole city, in the eyes of a European, an aspect truly novel and pleasing. On entering the harbour, the town begins to discover dilapidations from the destructive hand of time, large hills of rubbish appearing in various parts of it. The castle or royal palace in which the bashaw resides, is at the east end, within the walls, with a dock-yard adjoining. This castle is very ancient, and is enclosed by a high strong wall: it has lost all symmetry on the inside, from the innumerable additions made to contain the different branches of the royal family; for there is scarcely an instance of any of the blood-royal, as far as the bashaw's great grandchildren, living without the castle-walls. These buildings have increased it by degrees, to a little irregular town." The town is smaller than either Algiers or Tunis. Its greatest length, captain Beechey says, may be about 1960 yards, and its extreme breadth about 1000 yards. In 1805 the population was estimated by Ali Bey at about 15,000 souls; in 1811 Mr Blaquiere supposed it to amount to 25,000. This city has often been ravaged by the plague. The Arabic spoken at Tripoli is said to be the purest known on the whole coast.

Lebida and Mesurata.] To the E. of the capital is *Lebida*, the ancient *Leptis Magna* which ranked next to Carthage and Utica among the maritime cities of the Phœnicians.—*Mesurata* is the last town on the eastern boundary of the cultivated districts, and the capital of a province extending from Selim to Sooleb, and containing 40,000 souls. Caravans go from Mesurata to Fezzan and Vadei with cotton-goods, camlets, carpets, and beads. It is governed by an aga, who unites in his own person all the judiciary and legislative powers.

The Syrtis.] The gulf of Sidra, or the Greater Syrtis, occupies the eastern extremity of the coast-line of Tripoli; that of Gabes, or the Smaller Syrtis, forms the western. The effect of the Greater Syrtis, from Mesurata, is that of a dreary moor,—a wide tract of level waste land,—without any thing to distinguish one part of it from another, but the windings of a marsh, which threads its dark surface, and is lost in different parts of the unbroken horizon. It extends in length, from Mesurata to Sooleb, little less than 40 miles, and in breadth from 9 to 15 miles. At Sooleb, its southern limit, some tolerable pasturage occurs, but the marsh, soon after passing this place, expands again, and extends southward along the coast as far as Giraff, thus occupying altogether a space of 101 miles.

BARCA.] The whole of the country between Mesurata and Alexandria is described by Leo Africanus under the title of Barca. Some call Barca a desert; others call it a kingdom. The latter appellation is founded on the existence of this country as the independent kingdom of *Cyrene*, governed by a branch of the Ptolemies. The mountains of Gerdobah intersect the southern part of this district. The western parts are the most fertile; the interior is an expanse of sandy desert. Couriers travel from Tripoli to Cairo, across this country, in 25 or 30 days. It is governed by a bey, who resides at Demé. Along the whole coast, and in many parts of the interior, are found fine specimens of classic architecture,—splendid but melancholy monuments of a civilization, a prosperity, and a glory that have completely passed away. Among the towns on the coast are Bengazi, Cyrene, Teuchera, Barca, and Bonandria,—the five cities which conferred on this district in ancient times the name of *Libya Pentapolis*.—

Bengazi occupies the site of the ancient *Berenice*. It is a filthy and utterly decayed place, though built on the coast, close to the sea, and at the extremity of a beautiful and fertile plain. Its present population does not exceed 2000 souls.—*Cyrene* is built on the edge of a range of hills rising about 800 feet above a fine sweep of high table-land. We must refer the curious reader to captain Beechey's interesting account of *Cyrenaica*, for a description of the antiquities of this city and the surrounding region.—*Teuchera* or *Tauchira*, has likewise borne the name of *Arsinoe* and *Cleopatra*. It has no port, though close on the sea.—*Tolometa*, the ancient *Ptolemais*, the port of *Barca*, still preserves its ancient walls.—*Deme* is a very pleasant town, but is occasionally ravaged by the plague. We have already sketched the geographical features of that portion of the district of *Barca* which extends from *Alexandria* to the gulf of *Bomba*, in our account of Lower Egypt.

Oasis of Audjelah.] The oasis of *Audjelah*, the *Augila* of *Herodotus*, is situated in the route from the oasis of *Siwah* to *Fezzan*. Its inhabitants cultivate the soil, and escort the caravans which pass through their territory. The *Gherdabah* chain, which separates the desert of *Barca* from that of *Libya*, terminates at this oasis. It is governed by a bey, and has three villages within its limits.

FEZZAN.] *Fezzan*, the ancient *Phazania*, *Garamantes*, or *Gamphasantes*, is bounded by *Tripoli* Proper on the N.; by the desert of *Barca* on the E.; and by the great desert of *Sahara* on the W. and S. The greatest length of the cultivated country, from N. to S. is about 255 miles; and its greatest breadth, from E. to W., 200 miles. But the mountainous eastern region of *Haroodjeh* is comprehended in its territory. In the N. this country is intersected by three chains of mountains. The *Soudah* or Black Mountains, appear to be composed of basalt, nearly black, the surface of which has acquired a glassy or polished aspect. They rise to an elevation of about 1500 feet, being situated S. from *Sockna*, and extend 100 miles in breadth from N. to S. They are perfectly barren, of irregular form, occasionally broken into detached masses, and sometimes rising in cones. The latitude of this chain, as ascertained by captain *Lyon*, is from $28^{\circ} 40'$ to $27^{\circ} 30'$. The climate is hot, and rain seldom falls, but hurricanes occasionally darken the air with the sand which they raise up. The surface of *Fezzan* presents deserts intersected by *wadys*, cultivated oases, and small patches of soil, thinly sprinkled with vegetation. There are a few lakes in this district, the surfaces of which are sometimes covered with a thin crust of carbonate of soda. Dates are the principal production; maize and barley are grown, but not in sufficient quantity for the consumption. Figs, pomegranates, lemons, and legumes, are plentifully produced. The wild animals are ostriches, gazelles, hyenas, jackalls, tiger-cats, and foxes. The manufacturing industry of this country is limited to the production of a small quantity of coarse linen and cotton cloth; but caravans proceed from here to *Tripoli*, *Timboctoo*, and *Bornoo*; while *Moorzook*, the capital, is the rendezvous of caravans coming from *Cairo*, *Bengazi*, *Tripoli*, *Ghadames*, *Toust*, and *Soodan*.⁴ *Hornemann* estimated

⁴ PAYMENTS, in *Fezzan*, are generally made in gold dust, of which the value is always expressed by weight. The only current coin is Spanish silver piastres. The ordinary value of gold dust is exhibited in the following table:

$$1 \text{ grain (in weight)} = \begin{cases} 8\frac{1}{2} \text{ piastres of Tripoli,} \\ 1\frac{1}{4} \text{d. sterling.} \end{cases}$$

the population of Fezzan at 75,000 souls; other travellers have raised it to 150,000. This population is partly composed of Tsuricks and Tibboos, and partly of merchants from Egypt, Tripoli, Bornoo, Cachna, and other African countries. The native race are of middling stature, brown complexion, black woolly hair, small noses, large nostrils, and a small mouth. Their women are said to be immoderately fond of dancing, and of more dissolute habits than those of the adjoining districts. The chief takes the title of sultan, but has paid tribute to the pasha of Tripoli since the middle of the 16th century. This tribute at present consists of 3,000 *metacalli*, or about 450 ounces of gold dust, and a certain number of slaves of both sexes. In time of war the sultan of Fezzan is said to be able to bring into the field from 15,000 to 20,000 men. According to Hornemann, this small state contains 109 towns and villages, of which, *Moorsook*, with a population of 2,500 souls, is the capital. *Sockna*, *Wadai*, and *Gesna*, are the names of the next important towns. *Sockna* stands on an immense plain of gravel; bounded to the S. by the Soudah mountains, at about 18 miles distance, and about 30 miles to the eastward by the mountains of Wadai. The town is walled, and was estimated by captain Lyon, who visited it in 1819, to contain 2,000 persons. The streets are narrow, and the houses are built of mud and small stones mixed. There are 900,000 date-trees on a belt of sand 2 or 3 miles distant from the town, the fruit of which fetches a high price at Tripoli. The adjoining country is entirely destitute of shrubs. Many of the women are as fair as Europeans. There are many ancient ruins in this country.

Oasis of Ghadames.] This oasis lies in the western part of the kingdom of Tripoli. It produces dates, but little corn. It is said to contain 92 villages, and many remains of Roman architecture. It forms a kind of republic under three sheikhs, who are appointed by the pasha of Tripoli. The chief town is *Ghadames*, supposed to occupy the site of the ancient *Cydamus*. It is 16 days S. W. from Tripoli, and was till lately an independent town. Two Arab tribes live in Ghadames without holding any communication with one another. No intermarriage or civilities exist between them, although their different quarters of the city are only separated by a wall. The mass of the population of this district are descended from the ancient inhabitants of Barbary, and still speak a very old language, called by themselves *A'dems*, and by the Arabs *Ertans*. Four commercial routes lead from Ghadames into the interior of Africa. The 1st, or eastern of these, passes by Masda and Sockna to Moorsook, where it joins the 2d, which, passing through the territory of the northern Tsuricks, and by the town of Ghraat, skirts the desert of Soedan. The 2d, or southern route, goes by Agdas to Haoussa and Cachna; and the

4 grains	=	{ 1 aroobe of Fezzan, 33 piastres of Tripoli, 6d. sterling.
8 grains	=	{ 2 aroobes of Fezzan, 66 piastres of Tripoli, 1s. sterling.
80 grains	=	{ 1 <i>mekhal</i> of Fezzan, 666 piastres of Tripoli, 10s. sterling.

In Fezzan the grain is of the same weight as in England; but the ounce is different. The English ounce being equal to 480 grains. The Fezzan ounce is 660 grains. In Fezzan an English ounce of gold is worth 3l.; a Fezzan ounce of gold is worth 4l. The merchants are generally furnished with small papers of gold dust, for the convenience of transacting business.

4th, or western route, traversing the great desert, by Ain-es-Salah and Agabli, leads directly to Timbuctoo.

CHAP. IV.—TUNIS.

Boundaries and Extent.] Tunis, the ancient *Africa Propria*, is bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean sea; on the E. by the same sea and Tripoli; on the S. by a country inhabited by several independent Arab tribes; and on the W. by Algiers. It consists chiefly of a large peninsula, stretching into the Mediterranean in a north easterly direction, and coming within less than 100 miles of the coast of Sicily. Beginning at Cape Jerbi, the frontier point of Tripoli, the coast extends northerly, with a slight inclination to the E.; but after turning Cape Bon, its general direction is easterly, with a slight inclination to the S. It terminates at Cape Roux, in N. lat. 37°, and the whole extent of this irregular line is about 500 miles. The cultivated part reaches from 200 to 250 miles southward into the interior, till it terminates with the Jebel Mejerdah chain of Atlas, which separates Tunis from the vast dry plains of the *Biledulgerid* or 'Country of Dates.' With respect to its amazing resources, and the natural beauty of the country, few places, says Blaquiere, can be compared to Tunis.

Divisions. The ancient subdivision of this region still claims a place in geography. The fertile country in the neighbourhood of Keff and Bejjah, the *Regio Zeugitania* of Pliny, is now distinguished by the name of Frigiah. The districts between the Kairwan and the Jereed correspond to the *Bozaciium* of the ancients.

Rivers.] Although this regency is watered by various streams of minor importance, the only rivers of any consequence are the Mejerdah and the Wad-el-Quibir. The *Mejerdah*, celebrated as the *Bagrada* of antiquity, empties itself into the sea between Cape Carthage and Porto Farina. Its sources are yet unknown; but it is formed by the confluence of numerous streams descending from various branches of the Atlas, and distributes plenty over a fine level country in which are many towns and villages containing from 5000 to 15,000 inhabitants. The banks of this river and the country to the eastward are indeed the best-cultivated parts of the regency. That on the W. side, being exposed to the inroads of the Algerines, is thinly inhabited, and in many places desert.—The *Wad-el-Quibir* rises in the neighbourhood of El-Keff, and joins the sea near Tabarca.

Climate and Productions.] The heat becomes insupportable in July and August, when the S. wind brings the heated air from the interior of Africa. Some branches of the Atlas contain elevated and temperate regions. The tracts to the south, forming the date-country, though far from presenting the same rich and verdant aspect as those on the sea coast, yield not only dates, but grain of different kinds, and contain many large villages. There is a large shallow lake here called *Loodeah*, the *Palus Tritonis* of the ancients. All kinds of fruit common to warm climates are plentiful, with olive-trees, roses, and other odoriferous plants. Animal productions are here the same as in the other Barbary states. The mountains near Tunis are said to contain mines of silver, copper, and lead; and there is one of quicksilver near Porto Farina; but none of them are now turned to any account, although all these metals were exported by the ancient Carthaginians.—*Hammam Leef* is a noted hot-bath very

much resorted to by the Tunisians. Its temperature is generally 118°. The taste of the mineral is not unlike that of Glauber's salts, but by no means nauseating.

Population.] The population, which is calculated at 2,500,000 by some authors, and by Blaquiere at 4,500,000, consists, like that of the other Barbary states, of Moors, Arabs, Jews, and Christian slaves. The number of Jews is said to exceed 100,000. The number of the Arabs exceeds that of the Moors, who are the agriculturists and merchants. Reading, writing, and the knowledge of the Koran, are acquirements common to the people; and they are celebrated in this quarter of the globe for superior refinement and courtesy.

Commerce.] The territory of Tunis, from the manner in which it projects into the Mediterranean, coming into closer contact with Europe than any other of the Barbary states, is peculiarly favourable for carrying on trade in that sea. By these advantages, Carthage became the first commercial state of antiquity, and in the struggle for universal empire the rival of Rome itself; and though, under the relentless hatred of that iron-hearted people, the foundations of Carthage were ploughed up, its territories still formed the centre of the Roman African dominions, and were speedily covered with magnificent monuments of taste and wealth. In our own times its sovereigns have been peculiarly zealous in their encouragement of trade; and, accordingly, availing itself of the advantages of its situation, Tunis carries on a much more extensive trade than any of the other towns of Barbary. Grain was formerly a chief article of export, but the famine of 1805 induced the bey to prohibit its exportation. When it was exported, a license from the bey was obtained, and a duty paid on wheat to the amount of £1 10s. on the *caffis*, (equal to two English quarters,) and half that amount on barley. The principal port for shipping grain was Biserta. In a plentiful year, the state of Tunis was computed to produce about 900,000 quarters of wheat, and an equal quantity of barley. Olive oil pays a duty of 3s. 4d. per *metal* of 40 English pounds. The principal ports for shipping oil, are Tunis, Soliman, and Susa. Wool—which is here nearly equal to the best Spanish, and having a longer staple, is much better adapted to the manufacture of shawls—is shipped in large quantities, at Jerbi, Sfax, and other ports on the eastern frontier. About 20,000 *cantars* of this article were, in time of peace, exported to France and Italy. Soap, of very superior quality, is also largely exported. Sponge is collected on the shore between Sfax and Jerbi, and brings from 30s. to 42s. per hundred weight. Amid the ruins of Carthage, and on the rocky mountains to the eastward of Tunis, Orchilla weed is collected in considerable quantities. An extensive and lucrative commerce was formerly carried on with the interior, particularly with Constantina and Ghadames; but the bey's impolitic mode of governing the Arabs, is said to have interrupted it. The caravans from Timbuctoo, which used to arrive annually in June, furnished the merchants with gold-dust, ivory, and ostrich feathers. The imports—supplied almost exclusively, till of late years, by Marseilles and Leghorn—consist of all kinds of European manufactures, colonial produce, and East India cottons. The species of British goods chiefly demanded, is that kind of woollens called scarlet long-ells, which the caravans carry in large quantities into Central Africa. The merchant-vessels in 1811, might amount to 30, of from 300 to 100 tons. The coasting trade is all carried on by *sandals*, which never exceed 40 tons.

Government.] Tunis was the seat of the Carthaginian power. In the middle ages the state of Tripoli was subject to Tunis, of which Barbarossa took possession in 1533. It was annexed to the Turkish empire in 1574; and was for some time governed by viceroys appointed by Turkey. At the present day the Tunisians, though more civilized than the Algerines, are their inferiors in power. The soldiery have acquired the privilege of electing their own bey, who enjoys the same absolute power as the other Barbary sovereigns, and may now be considered entirely independent of the Porte. In many districts, the people are governed exclusively by their own chiefs, the Tunisians merely sending once a year a flying column to collect the tribute. The state-revenues may amount to £1,000,000.

Military and Marine Force.] The bey has about 10,000 troops in his pay, consisting of 4000 Turks or Levantines, and 6000 natives. The latter are collected from various mountain-tribes, and entirely undisciplined. The bey's naval force, Mr Blaquiere says, consisted, in 1811, of nine *zebeks*, or sloops of war, miserably equipped, with a few rotten galleys, and about 15 old gun-boats.

Chief Towns.] *Tunis*, the capital, and the *Tunes* of the ancients, is situated at the bottom of a bay, about 10 miles S. W. from the site of the ancient Carthage, of which it may be considered the successor. It is surrounded on all sides except the E., by considerable heights, and encircled with lakes and marshes, which, in almost any other climate would not fail to render it exceedingly unhealthy. The streets are irregular, extremely narrow, and so dirty as to be often nearly impassable. The houses, according to the custom of Barbary, are only one story high, with flat roofs, and cisterns for collecting rain water. The city is, moreover, well-supplied with water from a neighbouring spring, which is conveyed by a very fine aqueduct, built in the time of Charles V. It has one great mosque, and a number of smaller ones, a few colleges and schools, and in the centre of the city, a vast piazza which once contained 3000 shops for the sale of woollen and linen-manufactures. The finest structure, however, is the new palace built for the bey, upon which no expense has been spared. The houses of the European consuls are all insulated habitations, having very much the appearance of prisons. The houses have been computed at 12,000, and the population at 130,000 souls, of whom 30,000 are Jews, and 1500 Christians. Six miles to the west of the city is *Goletta*, the citadel and harbour of Tunis, which is sufficiently spacious to receive the whole Tunisian fleet. It is strongly fortified, but is commanded by a hill to the N. not more than 3500 yards distant. A large lake, above 30 miles in circumference, separated from the sea by a narrow isthmus, serves for the conveyance of goods and passengers between the harbour and the capital. The utmost depth of water in this lake is not more than six feet. It produces fine mullets.—Second only to the capital in population and commerce, is *Kairwan*, the first seat of Saracenic empire in Barbary, situated in the middle of a sandy and barren district, and of course subjected to much inconvenience from continued droughts. It is supposed to be the *Vicus Augusti* of the Itinerary, and was long in possession of a most extensive inland commerce. The great mosque here is esteemed at once the most magnificent and most sacred in Barbary. Dr Shaw was not allowed to enter it, but was assured that the pillars of granite by which it was supported were not less than 500 in number.—*Sfax* is a neat and thriving town, possessing a considerable trade in soap, oil, and cloth, 45 miles SSE. of Kairwan. According to Blaquiere, this town contains about

6000 inhabitants; but Greaves was told that the population amounted to 20,000.—A small group of islands called the *Querquini*—which may one day be rendered eminently useful to Sicily and Malta—lies between Sfax and Monasteer, and are separated from the mainland by a navigable channel, three miles wide.

Ruins of Carthage.] “This once celebrated capital of a great country,” says Blaquiere, “is now distinguished only by its cisterns, the remains of some amphitheatres, and an aqueduct; the whole a melancholy emblem of the instability of human greatness. We cannot, however, help being struck with admiration on a view of the place which was chosen as the site of the city. It was built on a high promontory forming the western extremity of Tunis Bay, now called Cape Carthage; and a more magnificent *coup-d’œil* cannot be conceived, than is presented to the spectator in the scene before him. The eye, wandering over extensive plains, sometimes interrupted by hills that form a semicircle of more than one hundred miles, is at length gratified by a range of lofty mountains that bound the horizon on each side. Among these, Zowan is the most conspicuous, and is celebrated for having supplied Carthage with water. The aqueduct constructed for its conveyance was equal to any of the most stupendous works of antiquity. The remains of it have been traced for seventy miles over a very irregular and hilly country: indeed, several hundred arches are still to be seen. The plain of Zama, remarkable for the sanguinary battle fought there between Hannibal and Scipio Africanus, which decided the fate of Carthage, is seen on the right, and is now covered with corn and groves of olive-trees. . . . As a military position, Carthage possesses every advantage, and may be considered as unassailable, if properly fortified. The cisterns must certainly have been either within the former citadel, or under its immediate protection; and such is their present state of preservation, that, during the winter, they are generally more than half full of good water. The whole promontory is highly cultivated, and produces large crops of wheat. Two or three hundred pipes of good wine are made annually in the vicinity of a small town built on the outer part of the cape. The best materials for throwing up works are to be found every where in the greatest abundance. And with respect to climate and purity of atmosphere, Cape Carthage is, I believe, unequalled.”

CHAP. V.—ALGIERS.

Boundaries and Extent.] Algiers, the second in importance of the states of Barbary, includes what was anciently the kingdom of *Numidia*, and a part of the *Mauritania Casariensis*, so denominated from the city of *Cæsarea*, built here by Juba the younger. It is bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean; on the E. by the state of Tunisia, from which it is divided by the river Zaine, the ancient *Tusca*; on the S. by the Sahara; and on the W. by the empire of Morocco, from which it is separated by the mountains of Trara, and the river Mulyva. It extends from about E. long. 8° 30' to W. long. 1° 30'. Its length from E. to W. is about 560 miles, and its breadth varies from 40 to 100 miles. Towards the Sahara, beyond the Atlas, the Algerine dominion is very precarious.

Name.] Its present name is derived from the situation of the metropolis, by the Turks called *Algezair*, and in Arabic *Al-jezirah*, or ‘the island,’ because there was formerly an island opposite to the city, which has since been united to it by a pier.

Divisions.] The modern provinces of this regency are Mascara, Algiers Proper, Titterie or Titeri, and Constantina. Of these the latter is the most important, and once belonged to Tunis.

HISTORY.] This country was in the earliest period of authentic history divided between two nations, the *Massyli*, on the side of Africa Proper, who were the subjects of Masinissa,—and the *Massæyli* towards Mauritania, who were under the dominion of Syphax, a Getulian prince. On the defeat of Juba by Cæsar, this country was reduced to a Roman province. Its subsequent history, down to the 16th century, is blended with that of Morocco already sketched. The bad eminence this state began to acquire from the time of the celebrated corsair Aruck Barbarossa, and which has been subsequently maintained down to its late solitary chastisement by the British fleet, requires that we should treat its more recent history with somewhat of detail.

Barbarossa.] In the beginning of the 16th century, the Spaniards, ever inveterate enemies of the Moors, encouraged by the prevalence of civil commotions, invaded this country; and, notwithstanding the assistance received by the Algerines, from Selim, an Arabian prince, the invaders were so successful as to threaten their total subjection. To relieve them from the danger of a yoke which they dreaded and detested, the Algerines invited to their assistance Barbarossa, a pirate, who, from a mean birth, had by his intrepidity raised himself to considerable power. Barbarossa, who had hitherto confined his depredations to the sea, eagerly accepted this opportunity of exerting his prowess by land, and speedily signalized his career, by causing Selim, the prince who had invited him to be murdered, and himself to be elected prince in his stead. A formidable fleet sent by the Spaniards against him was destroyed by a storm; but Barbarossa's cruelty had so disgusted his subjects, that they invited Abder, king of Tenez, to expel the usurper. He undertook the affair, but was vanquished by Barbarossa; and instead of acquiring a new kingdom, lost that which he formerly possessed, which served only to extend the power of the conqueror. By repeated acts of treachery, and the exertion of no inconsiderable share of skill and courage, his dominions were gradually extended to Tremecen and other districts. At last, he was killed in an engagement with the Spaniards, in the 44th year of his age. He was succeeded by his brother, Hayradin, who made his dominions a province of the Turkish empire, by placing them under the protection of the Porte, with the assistance of 2000 Janissaries. Hayradin secured his power in Algiers, and fortified the bay in a strong manner. He is said to have employed 30,000 Christian slaves for three years in building the mole.

Expedition of Charles V.] The depredations committed by the Algerines upon the Christians, now became so alarming, that pope Paul III. made use of his influence with Charles V. to prevail on him to reduce these piratical infidels. A bull, similar to those which had persuaded many to join the crusades, was published, offering absolution of sins, and the crown of martyrdom, to such as should either be killed in battle, or be made prisoners in this contest. Charles, not less superstitious than powerful, thought himself honoured by the commission, and immediately sailed against the Algerines with 120 ships, and 20 galleys, having on board 30,000 chosen men. The knights of Malta gladly embraced the opportunity of facing their hereditary enemy, and joined him with many of their best troops. This formidable armament having arrived before Algiers, the troops were landed without opposition, and proceeded to at-

tack the city, which was garrisoned by a few troops, without fire-arms, and without discipline. While the council and governor were consulting on the proper means of obtaining a favourable capitulation, a madman, or according to the Mahommedan opinion, a prophet rushed in among them and foretold the total destruction of the Spanish armament before the end of the moon; and, encouraged by such a prediction, it was resolved to make an obstinate defence. The Spaniards had renewed the attack with vigour, when a storm, which happened on the 28th of October 1541, completely verified the prediction of the prophet. Rain and hail, hurried along by impetuous winds, and accompanied by repeated shocks of an earthquake, laid waste the face of nature; and in one night, 86 ships and 15 galleys, with all their crews, were destroyed. Charles witnessed this disaster from his camp in silent agony, and immediately retired by land to Metafuzze, whence he returned with his remaining troops to Carthage, where he arrived on the 16th of November. Thus terminated the expedition undertaken for the subjugation of Algiers, and other parts of Barbary; an expedition in which a very great number of Christians perished, and in which the Algerines had taken so many prisoners, that, to show their contempt of them, they sold many of them at an onion per head. After this disaster, the Spaniards were long unable to proceed against the Algerines with any prospect of success.

Government altered.] In 1585, we first find the Algerines passing the straits of Gibraltar. About this time, the Algerines obtained from the Turkish government, the power of choosing their own dey, and of making laws for their own government. This bestowed upon the country new vigour and prosperity, and allured thither the numerous Moors who had been expelled from Spain in 1609. Many of these Moors, being excellent seamen, proved a valuable acquisition to a maritime state. The Algerine fleet thus daily augmented, by its depredations became formidable, not only to the Spaniards and Portuguese, with whom they were openly at war, but even to the French and English, with whom they pretended to be at peace.

Beaulieu's Expedition.] The Spaniards, whose power by this time was much more enervated than in the days of Charles V., were no less unwilling to bear the insults of the Algerines, than unable to cope with them; they therefore solicited, for this purpose, assistance from several other European powers. In 1617, the French sent against them Beaulieu, with a fleet of fifty sail; who, after defeating the fleet of the Algerines, captured only two of their vessels. That the victory was warmly contested, we may judge from the conduct of the Algerine admiral, who, rather than be made a prisoner, sunk his ship, and went to the bottom along with it.

Sir R. Mansel's.] The English, instigated, no doubt, by the insults which they continually received from the Moorish cruisers, sent a squadron against Algiers in 1620, under the command of Sir Robert Mansel, who returned without being able to effect the purpose of his equipment. The year 1628 was distinguished by an effort on the part of the Algerines, to throw off their allegiance to Turkey.

Capello.] The numerous depredations committed upon the Italian coasts, at length provoked the Venetians to take vengeance upon a power which had become so troublesome. Capello was despatched with a fleet and a commission to attack the Algerines wherever he could find them. The Venetians, at that time a powerful nation, and possessed of greater

skill in naval tactics than almost any other maritime power, might have destroyed the Algerine fleet; but its admiral avoided for a time coming to an engagement with Capello; at length, tired out by being blockaded in the port of Valona, whither he had retired, he ventured to hazard a battle. The contest was furious, but the Venetians claimed the victory. The Algerines, besides having five of their vessels disabled, lost upwards of 3000 men, and were obliged once more to enter the port of Valona. Here Capello continued to watch them, and would perhaps again have brought them to an engagement, had he not received orders from the Venetian senate to desist. The port belonged to the Ottomans, with whom the Venetians were at peace, and were willing to remain so. Capello indignant at being prevented from finishing a business which he had so successfully begun, ventured, in contradiction of his orders, to attack the enemy in the harbour where they lay at anchor. In this he succeeded so well, that, with little loss, he carried off 16 galleys. Had the attempt failed, he would probably have paid for his rashness with his life: success extenuated the fault. He was only reprimanded; and the republic purchased from the Turks oblivion of the insult.

Du Quesne.] So considerable a loss at sea was, for some time, severely felt by the Algerines; but they soon recovered their former vigour, so that within two years, they appeared again at sea with a fleet of 65 ships. The French, the English, and, in short, every Christian nation, were in their turn insulted. Louis XIV. resolving to chastise their insolence, fitted out a fleet, under the Marquis Du Quesne, who, in 1681, attacked the Algerine fleet, near the island of Scios, and, in a short time destroyed 14 of their vessels. In 1682, he bombarded Algiers itself, till he laid it almost entirely in ruins. But these insults, instead of humbling the Algerines, only exasperated them. They sent a fleet to the coast of Provence, where, by way of reprisal, they made the most dreadful ravages. Du Quesne, therefore, returned to Algiers in 1683, and bombarded it so successfully, that the dey desired to capitulate. The release of all prisoners taken on board of French ships was declared to be a preliminary article; and the terms were about to be acceded to, when Mezomorte, the Algerine admiral, who was to have been delivered as an hostage for the performance of the treaty, made such use of his influence, that he procured the murder of the dey, and was himself appointed to fill his place. The interruption of the capitulation procured from the French a more furious attack; but Mezomorte, regardless of danger, seemed only to desire revenge. Every French prisoner was put to death; and the French consul was fixed alive at the mouth of a mortar, and shot off against the bombarding fleet. Du Quesne redoubled his efforts, and soon laid the lower town, and two-thirds of the upper town in ruins, when the Algerines, convinced that further resistance must terminate in their destruction, despatched an embassy to Louis, to beg a peace, which was granted.

English Treaties, &c.] The English in 1686 effected a treaty of peace with the Algerines on reasonable terms, which was renewed by James II. William III. and George II. These treaties formed the basis of all the intercourse betwixt Great Britain and the Algerine state, until that which arose out of the last expedition. The outrageous conduct, however, of the Barbary pirates has repeatedly since called forth the indignation of the principal maritime powers of Europe. In 1775 the Spaniards sent a large fleet against Algiers, which landed about 14,000 troops; but owing to a want of cordiality between the commanders, the troops were re-embarked,

and the expedition returned, without attempting any thing of importance. In 1783, they returned, and bombarded the city in a terrible manner; nevertheless the dey obstinately held out, and the Spaniards relinquished the enterprise. They returned again the following year, but the dey had by this time prepared such a strong force of gun-boats as effectually kept them at a distance; and the Spaniards were glad to purchase a peace with 1,000,000 of dollars, besides a large sum for the ransom of their prisoners, while the haughty Mahomedans deemed themselves invincible.

Lord Exmouth's Expedition.] Our establishments at Gibraltar and Port Mahon preserved our relation with Algiers more stable than any other European state. But the general peace in 1816 induced the British government to demand some permanent arrangements with the Algerines. They were required to treat the inhabitants of the Ionian islands as British subjects; a peace was negotiated by our commander on the Mediterranean for Sardinia and Naples; and the liberation of all European captives, upon payment of a stipulated ransom, with an entire cessation of such nefarious traffic in future, was imperiously demanded. Mortifying as these conditions must have been both to the pride and avarice of the infidels, yet under the terrors inspired by the immediate presence of a British fleet, they were instantly accepted; and Lord Exmouth set sail for England, happy in having obtained his object without the effusion of blood on either side. Scarcely, however, had he departed, when the treaty was violated in the most open manner, by the massacre of a large body of Neapolitan coral-fishermen at Bona, tidings of which reached England almost as soon as Lord Exmouth's arrival was announced. An expedition, still more formidable than the former one, was instantly placed under his Lordship's direction to demand satisfaction for such a daring infringement of the law of nations. The British fleet was joined at Gibraltar by 5 Dutch frigates, and appeared before Algiers on the 18th of August. Sensible of the atrocity of his conduct, the dey was prepared to repel force by force; but on the 27th of August 1816, the Algerine fleet was reduced to ashes,—the greater part of the batteries silenced,—one-half of the town destroyed,—and no course left to his highness but to cast himself on the mercy of the British admiral. The terms imposed upon him were not less just than severe, namely: the instant liberation of all his captives without ransom, the repayment of all sums he had received as ransom-money since the commencement of the current year, and the abolition of Christian slavery for ever. The dey was also required to make a public apology to the British consul for having thrown him into prison. Lord Exmouth had the satisfaction of informing the Admiralty, on the 1st of September, that all the slaves in Algiers, amounting to 1211, amongst whom there was not one Briton, were already embarked, with 357,000 dollars for Naples, and 25,000 for Sardinia.

Conquered by France.] Notwithstanding the recent infliction of such signal punishment on these barbarians, the Algerine corsairs continued to commit many piracies upon French and Austrian vessels; and in May, 1830, an expedition was fitted out from Toulon by the former power, for the purpose of bombarding Algiers. The total military force employed on this occasion, exclusive of the marine force, amounted to 37,577 men. The trenches were opened on the 29th of June, and on the 5th of July the city capitulated to the French arms. The further intentions of France with regard to Algiers are not yet known; but she requires some outlet for a portion of the 200,000 souls which, according to Dupin,

she adds to her population every year. Now Mauritania, in point of climate, soil, and situation, is one of the most desirable countries in the world; and Marseilles or Toulon are not above three days' sail from Algiers, and the expense of conveying an emigrant from the one country to the other could not much exceed 20s. Were this scheme therefore carried into effect, an immediate stop would be put to those piratical practices which have so long dishonoured Europe; and in fifty years we might see the present miserable race of barbarians who occupy Mauritania replaced by or amalgamated with a community of one or two millions, cultivating the arts and commerce, and extending the empire of knowledge and civilization and Christianity over one of the fairest tracts of this earth's surface.

Mountains.] This kingdom is crossed in its southern part by the chains of the Atlas, known by the names of *Lowat* and *Ammer*. These mountains are of small elevation, and wooded nearly to their summits. *Mount Jurjura*, which may be considered as another branch of the general chain, extends about 22 miles from N.E. to S.W. It is the most elevated chain in this country; and its summits are usually covered with snow for the greater part of the year. The chains of *Wannogah* and *Gibbell-Auress*—the *Mons Aurasius* of the ancients—form the continuation of the Jurjura to the east.

Rivers.] The *Zha*, *Zis*, or *Sicut*, runs through the province of Mascara, and desert of Anguid, and falls into the Mediterranean, near the town of Tabecrita.—The *Haregol* rises in the Great Atlas, runs through the desert of Anguid, and empties itself into the sea 15 miles from Oran. It was probably the *Signa* of Ptolemy.—The *Mina*, or *Cenz*, after crossing the plains of Bathula, falls into the sea near the town of Arzow. It is a river of considerable magnitude, and the *Chylematis* of Ptolemy.—The *Shellif*, or *Xilif* originates in mount Gnanaxeris; and, running through the neighbouring desert, and part of Tremecen and Tenez, discharges itself into the sea near the city of Mostagan.—The *Celif* is an inconsiderable stream, which, after a course of about 50 miles, falls into the sea about 9 miles westward from Algiers.—The *Hued-al-quiver*, sometimes called the *Zinganir*, descends from the mountains of Cuto, and enters the sea near the city of Bujeyah. It is supposed to be the ancient *Nalabata*.—The *Suf Gemar* has its source in mount Auress, and enters the sea at a small distance from Gigeri.—The *Ladag*, or *Ludeg*, rises in mount Atlas, and is discharged near Bona; and the *Guadi*, or *Guadel Barbar*, enters the sea near Tabarca.—There are many rivers of inferior magnitude.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.] Occupying the northern declivities of mount Atlas, and having its shores washed by the Mediterranean, this country is beautifully diversified by hill and dale, and enjoys a fresher and cooler climate than its latitude would lead us to expect. The sugar-cane, orange, fig, pomegranate, and other tropical fruits, flourish upon the coast, and the European cerealia grow in high perfection in the interior. The largest tract of desert sandy country is that of Angad, which appears to be still, as in the time of Leo Africanus, the abode of lions, ostriches, and fierce robbers. It forms a sort of debateable ground between Morocco and Algiers. Mineral and salt-springs occur; earthquakes are frequent, but not disastrous.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The manufactures of this country are by no means numerous, and are said to be conducted chiefly by Spaniards. They consist of silk, cotton, wool, and leather. Carpets are made, but are of a quality much inferior to those of Turkey. Silk is manufactured

into velvet and taffeties, and coarse linen is made in almost every district. Algiers affords none of the materials of ship-building. Their vessels are constructed for the most part of those captured from other powers, which are taken to pieces and rebuilt according to a new model. The Algerines, like their western neighbours in Morocco, depend for supplies of foreign merchandise more upon piracy than trade. Every ship which they can overtake is made a prize, unless it belong to some power with which they have an actually existing treaty. These piracies used to furnish them with gold, silver, stuffs, damasks, cloths, spices, tin, iron, plated brass, lead, quicksilver, cordage, sail-cloth, bullets, cochineal, linen, tartar, alum, rice, sugar, soap, cotton raw and spun, copperas, aloes, brazil-wood, logwood, and vermilion. The wheat, like that of the rest of Barbary, is fine, and exports of corn have sometimes been considerable; but the country at present produces no more than is necessary for the inhabitants. Oil is produced in great quantities, but the consumption of it is so great, that it is not permitted to be carried away. The exports consist chiefly of silk, saffes, rugs, copper, embroidered handkerchiefs, ostrich-feathers, and dates.

Population.] We are not in possession of any positive account of the population of this country. It probably amounts to about 2,500,000 souls. The towns are peopled by Moors, Turks, Jews, and Europeans. The Arabs principally occupy the low grounds; the Berbers inhabit the Atlas and the country of Zab; the *Beni-Ammer*, a nomade tribe, reside in the province of Mascara; the *Coucos* and *Beni-Abbes* dwell around Bougia; and the *Henneischas* on the frontiers of Tunia, and the banks of Medjerdah. Bruce affirms that there exists, in the mountains of Aures, a tribe of a fair complexion, with red hair, whom he supposes to be a remnant of the Vandal inhabitants of this country. The settled inhabitants of the Zab country are known by the appellation of *Bicaris*. The *Coloris*, or *Kuloglous*, are a mongrel race of Turkish fathers, and Moorish or Negro mothers.

Government.] Algiers was formerly dependent on the Porte; to whom, however, it acknowledged subjection only by sending annual presents to the sultan, consisting chiefly of slaves. Its government, previous to its capture by the French, was a species of military republic. What was called the *regency* was composed of the dey, the Turkish janissaries, and a council of state called the *dowane*, which generally consisted of 30 pashas. The dey was always chosen from the Turkish soldiery,—a business conducted with much tumult, and very seldom indeed without bloodshed. The aga of the janissaries was the only important officer of state under the dey; but could only hold office for two months successively. A secretary of state filled the next place in dignity; and the oldest colonels, captains, and lieutenants, respectively ranked next. Justice was ordinarily administered by the *cadi*, in a kind of police-court, twice a-day, before which all kinds of suits, civil and criminal, were tried; but every important cause was referred to the dey himself. Capital punishments used to be inflicted, with the characteristic cruelty of the Algerines, by burning, impaling, or throwing the culprit upon hooks. Of course, the possession of the capital by the French has totally altered the old regime, but we are not yet in possession of exact information on this subject.

Military Force.] The Turks, who formed the great sinew of the Algerine army, seldom exceeded 15,000; but the corps of *Chiloulis* and *Zouavis* increased it to many more; while a call from the dey could bring in all the Arabian chiefs who happened to be well-affected at the moment

towards his highness. On occasion of great emergency, it is supposed a popular dey might have brought an army of 120,000 men into the field. In marching, the army was not divided into battalions or squadrons, but into *nuffrahs* or 'tents,' each large one containing 20 men.⁶

Revenue.] The public revenue under the old regime is unknown. Dr Shaw computed the whole at only 300,000 dollars,—a sum certainly below the average amount, as the French are said to have found a very considerable sum in the dey's treasury. Whatever it may have been, its only sources were the ransom of captives, the monopoly of grain, and arbitrary impost on strangers. When finances were in a very low state, it was usual for the dey to order an irruption against some of the neighbouring nations, or declare war against some of the European states.

Capture of Slaves.] The circumstances which usually attended capture by a Barbary corsair, are thus detailed by Signor Pananti:—"When the squadron makes a prize, a crew, composed of Turks and Moors, immediately replace that of the captured vessel, which is received on board the ship of the Grand rais: she is then ordered to proceed to Algiers, or the nearest port on the coast. If taken by a private corsair, the prize is towed within sight of the capital; when the flag of the vanquished enemy is displayed under that of the corsair, and several guns announce the capture. The prize is then consigned to the captain of the port, and the cruiser returns to sea in search of more booty. An inventory of the prize's cargo being taken, it is presented to his highness, who is the legal proprietor of all captures, but is satisfied with merely an eighth. If the cargo is composed of such articles as can be conveniently divided among the captors, a division of the spoil is made according to their respective rank; otherwise, the whole is sold, and a distribution of prize-money follows. Should there be none of the Moorish merchants disposed to purchase the cargo, the Jews are forced to buy it. It is remarkable, that all Christian slaves who may have been on board an Algerine when any capture is made, are entitled to their share of the prize; it being presumed that their good fortune contributed to the event. On the squadron's or corsair's return to port, the crews are landed, and having remained a few days with their families, present themselves before the rais to receive their quota of prize-money. In disposing of the captives, some are given to the dey, while the rest fall into the hands of those who purchase them. The most comely have the honour of being selected to attend his highness in the capacity of pages, and are soon decked out in the richest habiliments. Those who have any trade are let out to hire among the Moors, a third of their earnings being left to themselves. Those who become the property of individuals, are, of course, treated better or worse, according to the character and disposition of their masters. Those destined to attend the troops in the *cassarias*, are treated with great mildness.

⁶ "The Algerine soldiery," says Pananti, "are very obedient, not so much through fear of chastisement, as a fondness for their calling: they also possess an *esprit de corps*, which in them is equivalent to patriotism. Besides being excellent marksmen, they are brave and resolute in battle; nor has their cavalry lost any thing of its ancient spirit, so warmly panegyricized by the Roman historian. It is, however, to be observed, that if the enemy resist their first charge, or surround them by an unexpected and rapid movement, they are soon thrown into confusion without the power of rallying. The armies of Barbary are also extremely ill provided with artillery; and owing to the quantity of baggage, and the numbers of women and children, cattle, &c., which follow in their train, the march is constantly retarded. Totally ignorant of providing for winter-quarters, the season no sooner changes than all are anxious to return home. This inclination gives rise to mutiny and tumult, which frequently ends in the decapitation of their unfortunate chiefs, as practised by the Punic legions of former days."

"Slaves intended for sale are marched to the *basistan*, or auction-mart, and made to walk backwards and forwards, as we show the paces of a horse; a crier being in attendance to announce their number, trades, and respective qualities. Every one present is at liberty to bid, and each offer is registered by a clerk, before the slaves are delivered up. Another sale takes place at the dey's palace, when his highness conscientiously retains for himself whatever may be offered over and above that of the first day's sale. No sooner is a slave knocked down (to use the technical phrase) than his purchaser must pay the purchase money. Women who have any prospect of being able to pay their ransom, are consigned to the *chekebeld's* care, and remain in his house till the arrangements for their emancipation are completed; while the poorer female captives are sold at the *basistan*, and thenceforward abandoned to the brutal ferocity of the Moors and Turks. Among the various brokers who parade the streets, some get their bread by dealing in human beings. These are called *tegorarini*, and attend all sales with the view of buying such slaves as they consider likely to bring a higher price when fattened up, or in the hope of their getting friends to come forward with a ransom. Some of the *tegorarini* let their slaves out to consuls and other inhabitants, at the rate of a piastre per month..... Some of those who understand a useful trade, get permission to work at it, by merely paying a monthly stipend to the guardian *baasha*.

"No sooner is any one declared a slave, than he is stripped of his clothes, and covered with a species of sack-cloth; he is also generally left without shoes or stockings, and often obliged to work bare-headed in the scorching rays of an African sun. Many suffer their beard to grow as a sign of mourning, while their general state of filth is not to be conceived. Some of these wretched beings are destined to make ropes and sails for the squadron: these are constantly superintended by keepers who carry whips, and frequently extort money from their victims, as the price of somewhat less rigour in the execution of their duty. Others belong to the dey's household; and many are employed by the rich Moors, who may have bought them at market, in the lowest drudgery of domestic employment. Some, like the beasts of burthen, are employed in carrying stones and wood for any public buildings that may be going on: these are usually in chains, and are justly considered as the worst among their oppressed brethren.⁶ Two black cakes are their principal daily sustenance; and had it not been for the charity of a rich Moor, who left a legacy for that purpose, Friday, the only day they are exempt from work, would have seen them without any allowance whatever.⁷ Shut up at night in the prison,

⁶ "There are three classes of chains; of 100, of 60, and of 30 lb. weight. The one-hundred-pounders are for strong men; the sixty for old men; and the thirty-pounders for young persons. These heavy chains are placed round the body as a sash, with a long piece of chain hung on the right leg, and joined by a heavy ring, to be placed on the foot. All these chains are shut by a lock, and never can be taken off. Thus these poor slaves must walk any distance whatever, and work, and sleep, and live always with these chains; the marks of which I have seen round their bodies and their legs, in very deep furrows eaten into the flesh, which becomes dark and hard as bone. After these poor creatures are put in chains, they make them work at cutting stones from the mountains, felling trees, carrying sand and stones for building, moving guns, and such kinds of laborious works. Every ten slaves are bound together and guided by a guard with a whip in his hand. They sleep altogether on the ground, in a large stable, with a mat under them. If any of them have money, they can make themselves rather more comfortable."—Salamé, pp. 103—5.

⁷ "The Government allows to each person, for every day of the week, except Friday, a loaf of eight or ten ounces of a very black kind of bread, made of barley and beans; one handful of peas, and a small measure, not larger than a thimble, of oil. That is the whole of their food; and on Friday, nothing at all. An age of the janissaries ob-

like so many malefactors, they are obliged to sleep in the open corridor, exposed to all the inclemency of the seasons.....It is usual for one or two hundred slaves to drop off in the year, from want of food, of medical attendance, and other necessities. The slightest offence or indiscretion is punished with two hundred blows on the soles of the feet, or over the back; and resistance is often punished with death.

"Although a price is set on each captive, that the whole may encourage a hope of freedom, yet, from the peculiar mode in which their liberation must be effected, this hope is almost unavailing. If, after having obtained leave to exercise their trade, they acquire any property, they are not allowed to pay it for their ransom. Offers of this kind have always been rejected, on the ground that the dey is legal heir to all the property of his slaves; and frequently, in order to get possession of it a little sooner, this honourable revenue is anticipated by the owner's being despatched..... Whenever a captive is taken ill at Algiers, motives of self-interest call upon the Moorish proprietor for a little indulgence; but, were it not for the benign charity of Spain, which has established a small fund to support a hospital for the reception of Christian slaves, the latter, when overcome with disease, would be left to perish in the streets. By means of the above benevolent institution, they may at least hope to die in peace..... It is only ten years ago, that even the tomb afforded no shelter to the remains of a Christian in this country. The rites of sepulture were, for a long time, absolutely refused to the bodies of Christian captives, and they were often left exposed in the open air to be devoured by reptiles and birds of prey. It was with considerable difficulty that Charles IV. of Spain obtained, at an enormous price, a small space near the sea, which has since been the Christian burying-ground; but it is not distinguished by any mark to denote the solemn purpose, nor by a fence to defend the sacred precincts from barbarous intrusion. Thus do Christians live and die in Algiers!"

TOPOGRAPHY.] We shall now briefly sketch the topography of this region, beginning with the western province of Mascara.

Province of Mascara.] On the coast of this province, we find the garrisoned town of *Mustyganaim*, which Shaw supposes may occupy the site of the ancient *Cartenne*.—In the midst of a plain, watered by one of the branches of the *Sigg*, and 10 leagues from *Mustyganaim*, is *Mascara*, or *Mascara*, a collection of mud-walled houses, now the residence of the bey.—Between Cape Ferrate, and Cape Falcon, is the famous maritime city of *Oran* or *Warran*, long in the possession of the Spaniards.

Province of Constantina.] This province originally belonged to Tunis. It is, according to Dr Shaw, upwards of 230 miles in length, and 100 in breadth, and forms by far the most fertile, as well as the largest province in the Algerine territory. Its coast is more frequently visited by Europeans than any other part of Barbary. Its bey, though nominated by the dey, is almost independent. He can bring nearly 20,000 men into the field; and he pays an annual tribute of about £30,500.—On the coast

seeing the miserable state of these unfortunate people, and the inhumanity with which they were treated, was induced by his feelings to allow them a portion of meat and wheaten bread for every Friday, on which day they would else have had nothing. This allowance continued for several years; but, for their misfortune, this good man died of about a middle age; and nobody after him was so humane as to follow his benevolent example. And thus these unfortunate creatures were deprived again of assistance, till the Divine Providence released them through the medium of the exalted and meritorious government of Great Britain."—Salasé, p. 105.

we have *Bona*, the ancient *Hippona*, the episcopal see of the celebrated Augustine. It is called by the Moors *Blaid-el-Aneb*, or 'the town of Jubes,' from the abundance of that fruit produced in its neighbourhood. The French African company exported 100,000 Winchester bushels of corn, and 10,000 quintals of wool from this place in one year.—The town of *La Cala* stands on a peninsula of spongy rock, 10 leagues to the E. of Bona. It was the chief settlement of the French African company for 150 years. In 1806, the British government contracted with the dey for the possession of La Cala, Bona, and Cool, stipulating to pay the annual sum of 50,000 dollars for the same; but we never seem to have made any use of these possessions, although French and Neapolitan coral-boats have been incessantly employed on the banks, and with the greatest success. About 30 leagues S. of Bona, is *Constantina*, the *Cirta* of antiquity. Its population is said to amount to 30,000 souls.—Five leagues to the N. W. of Constantina is the city *Meelah*, the *Milerum* of the ancients.—*Tif-fesh*, the *Thebæ* or *Thebestis* of the ancients, is the only city in the fruitful district of *Henneishah* belonging to this province.

District of Zab.] The district of Zabe or Zab, is a narrow tract of land lying under the southern ridge of mountains, and watered by the rivulets which form the *Wed-al-Juddee*, or 'river of the Kid.' It is full of villages, the inhabitants of which are the descendants of the ancient Getulians.—The countries of *Wadreag* and *Wurglah* to the S. of Zab seem to belong to independent Berbers.

Province of Tüteri.] This province, bounded eastwards by the Booberah, and westwards by the Masaffran, and lying to the S. of Algiers, is exclusive of the Sahara, only a few miles in either length or breadth. The only inland cities are *Bleeda* and *Medea*, each about a mile in circuit. The *Tüteri Dosh* is a remarkable ridge of precipices four leagues in length to the S. of Medea. Dr Shaw unites the provinces of Algiers Proper and Titteri into one district.

Province and City of Algiers.] The *Mettijiah*, or plain of Algiers, is a rich champaign country, bounded on the S. by a range of rugged mountains, running almost parallel with the coast. The city of Algiers, supposed to be the *Iconium* of the ancients, is of very considerable extent. It is situated nearly opposite to Minorca, 380 miles W. of Tunis. It lies upon the side of a hill, which rises from the shore in the form of an amphitheatre; and as the houses, in general, have flat white roofs, it appears from sea, at a distance, like a field covered with bleached linen, or like 'the top-sail of a ship.' The houses, like those in Morocco, consist of a court in the middle, surrounded with galleries and different apartments. The city, which has no spring within the walls, is supplied with water conveyed through pipes from a hill in the neighbourhood. This water is distributed through numerous fountains, of which the principal is at the mole, where the ships are watered. The following description of the state of the fortifications, at the time of the bombardment of Algiers by the British, is given by M. Salamé: "On the north side, about a mile from the town, there is a small castle, and several batteries, one after another; and the last is joined to the wall of the city. From this north side, they do not fear any thing, because there is not water enough for anchorage, nor for landing. From this wall to the mole, there are several batteries more, because the mole is situated in the middle of the third part of the city, which is on the sea side. On the north head of the mole, there is a semi-circular battery of two tiers of forty-four guns, called the Lion's bat-

tery, the guns of which bear on the north, on the east, and on the south. After this is another round one of three tiers, and of forty-eight guns, in the middle of which there is built a tower or light-house; and they call it the light-house battery. This is supported by another, a long one, still more strong, of three tiers containing sixty-six guns, and called the Eastern battery. This is flanked by four others, of two tiers, one joined to the other, which contain sixty guns directed towards the S.E. and the S. On the south head of the mole, there are two large sixty-eight pounders, I believe of 20 feet long. One of these, in the subsequent engagement, was thrown with its carriage into the sea, and the other was knocked off its carriage by a shot in its mouth. Almost opposite, there are, on the city side, two small batteries of four guns each; but these are followed by a strong battery of twenty guns and a very ancient building, situated upon two large arches, through which they pass to the fish-market; and they call it the Fish-market battery. From this to the south wall of the city, there are two batteries more; and from that to a distance of about a mile and a half S., there are several other batteries and a large castle. These are their fortifications on the sea-side; but the rest of the works round the walls of the city, and the two castles situated upon the hills, were too far for me to observe them well: they say that the whole of their fortifications mounted 1500 guns." There are 9 great mosques, and 50 smaller ones in Algiers. Its finest public buildings are the five *cassarias*, which serve as barracks. Algiers is said to have contained upwards of 20,000 houses previous to its recent bombardment. Some authorities, however, rate the population as low as 50,000 souls.

CHAP. VI.—MOROCCO.

Boundaries and Extent.] This part of Barbary is bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean and the straits of Gibraltar; on the E. by the river Mulvia, or Muluwia, which separates the dominions of Morocco from the kingdom of Tremecen, or Tiamsan, now forming part of the territory of Algiers; on the S. by the Sahara, or, according to some, by the river Suz, for the Arabs to the south of that river, though they nominally acknowledge the emperor of Morocco as their political and spiritual chief, pay but little attention to his mandates; and on the W. by the Atlantic ocean. Malte Brun supposes, that this state embraces a territory of 500 or 550 miles in length, and 420 in breadth: that is, a superficial extent nearly equal to the kingdom of Spain. Jackson estimates its length from N. to S. at about 500 miles; but limits its breadth from E. to W. to 200 miles. Stein, extending its southern boundary to the Sahara, estimates the total superficies at 308,542 square miles.

Divisions.] The empire of Morocco comprises four grand divisions answering to the four kingdoms into which the territory was originally distributed. These, with their provincial sub-divisions, are as follow:

I.—NORTHERN PROVINCES, OR KINGDOM OF FEZ.

Chief Towns.

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Erreef, or El Rif. | |
| 2. El Gharb. | Tetuan, Tangier, Arzilla. |
| 3. Beni Hassan. | Sallee, Rabat. |
| 4. Temsena. | Dar el Beyda. |

Chief Towns.

5. Shawiya, or Shavoya.
6. District of Faz, or Faz Proper. Fez, Mequinez.
7. Tedla.

II.—CENTRAL PROVINCES, OR KINGDOM OF MOROCCO.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Duquella. | Mazagan, Azamora. |
| 2. Abda. | Saffee. |
| 3. Shedma. | Magadore. |
| 4. Haha, or Hen. | |
| 5. District of Morocco Proper. | Morocco. |

III.—SOUTHERN PROVINCES, OR KINGDOM OF SUZ.

- | | |
|------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Suz, or Sush. | Agades, Taradant, Janoom. |
| 2. Draha. | |

IV.—EASTERN PROVINCE, OR KINGDOM OF TAFILET.

History.] Morocco, the *Mauritania* of the ancients, was, together with the other parts of Northern Africa, long under the dominion of the Romans. When the Roman empire was dismembered by the northern hordes, this part fell to the share of the Goths, in whose power it continued till the year 600; after which, in quick succession, the Goths yielded it to the Vandals,—the Vandals to the Greeks,—and the Greeks to the Saracens. The dynasty of the Aglabites, whose original seat of empire was fixed at Kairwan, and that of the Edrisites, whose capital was Fez, were both subjugated by the Fatimites; who, being afterwards occupied with the conquest of Egypt, as already mentioned, allowed the Zuheirites or Zeinds, to usurp their western possessions. In the provinces of Tunis and Constantine, the Zuheirites were succeeded by the Moravedi, who rose into military consequence in A. D. 1069, under Abu Bekr Ben Omar Lame-thouni, a celebrated reformer of the Mahommedan religion, who created a sect, marked in the first instance by furious zeal, which, issuing from the desert like a fiery hurricane, threatened by turns Africa and Europe. They not only, under their *Emir al Movemenim*, or 'prince of the Faithful,' conquered a great part of Barbary, but even carried their arms into Spain, where they defeated the Christian forces in the great battle of Sala, A. D. 1086. The ecclesiastical and political sway of the Moravedi, or Moraboths, extended from Algiers southward to Timbuctoo and Soodan, and lasted for 80 years. In the middle of the 12th century, they gave way before the Almohades, supposed to be the *Kabyles* of the Berber nation. These, in their turn, became masters of the *Mogreb*, or 'Great Empire of the West,' and their princes assumed the title of caliph. After the lapse of a century, intestine discords laid the Almohades open to the successful inroads of rival tribes; about 1250, the Merinites seized Fez and Morocco, but made no effort to re-establish the great empire of Mogreb. Their power was overthrown by the Ootazi, which circumstance gave an opportunity to a hereef, or descendant of Mahomet settled at Tafilet, to seize the sceptre, which he left to his family. The present sultan is of this family, which, notwithstanding frequent revolutions, has maintained itself in the sovereignty of Morocco for nearly 300 years. The reigning sultan, Muley Abderrahman, ascended the throne in 1822.

* The title *muley*, which seems to answer to 'prince,' or 'highness,' is the same, Colonel Keatinge says, as the Gaelic *amhlough*, 'eminent,' 'lefty.'

Mountains, Rivers, &c.] In this country is found that chain of mountains, known by the name of Atlas, and which has been already described. The chief rivers are the *Mulawia*, the *Saz*, *Marbeya* or *Oumirabih*, *Rabatu*, *Larache*, *Darout*, *Sebae*, *Gueron*, and the *Tensift* or river of Morocco: all these, except the first, have their sources in Mount Atlas, and discharge themselves into the Atlantic. The principal bays on the coast are the bay of *Tangier* in the Straits of Gibraltar, and *Tetuan* in the Mediterranean. The capes are those of *De Geer*, *Cantin*, and *Blanco*, in the Atlantic. *Cape Nome*—by which *Cape Nun* is probably meant—has been enumerated among the capes of Morocco; but it is placed by the most correct maps farther south than any part of Morocco. At the entrance of the strait of Gibraltar is *Cape Spartel*; and, in the Mediterranean, *Cape Thespharis*. The great plain of *Mamora* extends about 80 miles inland, and is remarkable for its extreme smoothness, being as even, Windmer says, as a bowling-green.

Climate.] Morocco, though situated in a latitude which may with propriety be denominated warm, and though it belongs to a continent of which almost every part is remarkable for heat, is by no means so much parched as from these circumstances we might be led to expect. Mount Atlas, stretching along its S. E. side, screens it from those burning winds which sweep across the sandy desert; while the breezes proceeding from the Mediterranean on the N. and the Atlantic on the W. contribute likewise to cool the atmosphere; so that although the interior during summer is very warm, the country in general enjoys an agreeable temperature. In the coldest weather, the thermometer is seldom more than 5° below the freezing point. In January the fields are clothed with flowers; in March barley is cut; the wheat-harvest is in June; and the vintage is frequently finished before the beginning of September. The rains, which are frequent, tend to fertilise the earth; but they are sometimes so heavy as to destroy rather than promote vegetation.

Soil and Agriculture.] The soil is in general fertile; but, on the western coast, it is said to be stony and light, and more proper for the vine and olive, than the culture of any kind of grain. The plains of the interior usually consist of a rich black loam. On the fertility of the soil, more than on the excellence of cultivation, the inhabitants depend for a harvest. The stubble is burnt upon the ground; and this, together with the dung of the cattle occasionally turned upon it to graze, forms the only manure which it ever receives. The soil is turned up with a light plough, in so superficial a manner that a wooden share is often used; nevertheless, from a mode of cultivation so slovenly, the inhabitants often reap sixty fold. Thirty is esteemed an indifferent crop. Such a soil, in the hands of an industrious people, would be a source of inexhaustible wealth. The inhabitants of Morocco, enjoying a territory so fertile, might live in the midst of luxury, while they supplied many of the wants of less-favoured countries; but the despotic form of government, which renders property insecure, tends also to nourish that indolent habit of which a warm climate is generally productive. The Moors cultivate only such a portion of ground as is absolutely necessary to supply their immediate wants; two-thirds of the country are said to lie continually waste; equally useless to the natives and to the rest of the world; and yet famine is occasionally felt in this country. When captain Beauclerk visited it, in 1826, he saw, in a valley between *Minden* and *Salée*, skulls, bones, entire skeletons, and half-rotten carcases, partly devoured by hyenas and vultures thickly scat-

tered on the ground,—the horrible effects of a recent famine, when thousands perished with hunger.

Productions.] The fruits of Morocco are numerous. Oranges and lemons grow in the fields. Vines thrive well in the northern provinces, and if the people were industrious, much wine might be made. Figs, melons, and water-melons, are abundant; but, owing to the heat of the climate, the two former decay as soon as they are ripe. Near Fez and Mequinez are found apricots, apples, and pears. The prickly pear, and Barbary fig, are every where plentiful. Olive-trees flourish in the greatest luxuriance, and olive-oil might be produced in any quantity, but arbitrary taxation has caused the culture of this tree to be neglected. The southern parts produce the *arga* (*rhamnus Siculus*, L.) the fruit of which yields an oil used by the Moors in dressing their victuals, and the species of trees which yield gum sandarach and the transparent gum. In the same districts are found the palm and date-trees; but the latter are not produced in perfection except in the province of Suz. The oaks of Mamore and Sallee yield large acorns, which taste like chestnuts. The chief grain is wheat. The country is favourable to bees, and honey and wax were formerly plentiful, but injudicious duties have caused a general neglect of the hives. No plant produced in Morocco is more generally useful to the inhabitants, than the palm-tree; besides yielding fruit of a good quality, its leaves are manufactured into mats, fringes, baskets, hats, bags and ropes. The dry and rocky table-lands which lie between the villages of the interior, greatly resemble the *landes* or downs of Spain. They abound in scattered groves of cork-trees, and evergreen oaks, under whose shade, sage, lavender, and other aromatic plants grow in great luxuriance. The tall-stemmed *genista*, the different species of *cistus*, mignonette, sumach, broom, *agave*, and many species of *euphorbium* and *cactus* adorn the windings and clefts of the rocks. The animal species is not greatly varied. In some places of the country the ground sometimes appears covered with an ugly kind of grasshopper; and in other districts mosquitoes are exceedingly annoying; scorpions are likewise abundant, especially in old ruins. Copper is found in the neighbourhood of Santa Cruz. Though the quantity be small, it is greater than is necessary for the use of the inhabitants, and part of it is exported. Iron-mines have been wrought in the southern parts; but, owing either to the small quantity produced, the expense of working, or want of skill, the price was so high that it could be procured cheaper from other countries, although the importation of it is loaded with heavy duties. The inhabitants pretend that gold was formerly found in the country. The mountains of Atlas probably contain valuable metals and minerals; but the Moors possess neither ingenuity nor a spirit of enterprise sufficient for the search.

Manufactures.] The manufactures of this country are not numerous; and, with a few exceptions, they are of a very inferior quality. The *haïque*, or principal garment of the Moors, is a native manufacture, and is made either of wool and cotton, or of cotton and silk. Their other manufactures are silk-handkerchiefs, and silks chequered with cotton,—carpets not much inferior to those of Turkey, and matting of an elegant texture, made of the wild palm or palmetto,—Morocco leather or cordovan,—a coarse kind of paper,—an inferior kind of gunpowder,—and of iron imported from Biscay they manufacture long gun-barrels. They are ignorant of the mode of making glass, but as they do not use glass windows, they have little occasion for it. Butter and cheese are made, but both of

execrable quality; the former is procured by agitating the milk in a bag of goat's skin, with the hair inwards, so that it can hardly have the necessary quality of cleanness. The tools and domestic utensils used throughout the empire seem, for ages, to have undergone little variation. They are clumsy and ill-finished: strength being reckoned the chief requisite in their formation. Their form, however, differs little from that of similar tools in some parts of Europe. Every weighty article is carried on the backs of camels, mules, or asses, no wheel-carriages being in use.

Commerce.] The commerce which the inhabitants of Morocco carry on by land is with Arabia and the Negro tribes to the southward. To the former, they send woollen manufactures, leather, indigo, cochineal, and ostrich-feathers: and, in return, they receive drugs, silks, and maulins. To the Negro nations, they send woollen manufactures, salt, and silk; and, besides a great number of slaves, they receive, in return, ivory and gold. The merchants travel in caravans to defend themselves from the wandering tribes in the deserts through which they pass. They are at the same time subjected to the danger of wild beasts, and the more irresistible moving sands. The caravans which go to Arabia are always attended by crowds of pilgrims, who go to Mecca to visit the tomb of Mahomet, and who, if they be so fortunate as to return, receive high honour from their countrymen. The Moors have not much trade by sea. The ships fitted out from their ports are principally employed in capturing or pillaging the vessels of every power with which they have no positive treaty. These prizes were formerly so numerous as to furnish them with a considerable quantity of the foreign articles which they needed. Their ports, however, are frequently visited by ships belonging to the trading nations of Europe, particularly by the British, who pay only half the duties exacted from others, and who furnish them with woollen and linen cloth, stuffs, wrought and unwrought iron, arms, gunpowder, and shot; for which they receive, in return, copper, wax, hides, Morocco leather, wool, gums, soap, dates, almonds, and different kinds of fruits. Corn is occasionally exported. Tea—of which great quantities are consumed in this portion of Barbary—and sugar, are imported from Gibraltar to Spain, and other kinds of provisions and fruits from Tangier and Tetuan.

Population.] The accounts which have been given of the population of the Barbary states are so much at variance with each other, that it is impossible to place the least reliance upon any of them. Mr Jackson states the population of Morocco at 14,886,600 souls! Chenier and Haest think the empire does not contain above 6,000,000; Balbi states it at only 4,500,000; while others have estimated it so low as 2,000,000.

Government, &c.] The emperor of Morocco is possessed of absolute power, and exerts it in acts of the most despotic cruelty. He is at once the maker, interpreter, and not unfrequently the executioner of his own laws. He assumes the title of "Most glorious, mighty, and noble Emperor of Afric, king of Fez and Morocco, Tafilet, Suz, Darha, and all the Algarbe, and its territories in Afric; grand shereef of the great prophet Mahomet," &c. The officers of his government are muftis and cadis, who have the superintendence of civil and religious affairs; and governors, and other inferior officers, who have the superintendence of military and state-affairs. Both classes are equally under the influence of the monarch, but are equally oppressive and avaricious; and both use the same arbitrary methods to support their influence at court.

Military and Marine Force.] The number of land forces belonging

to the emperor of Morocco is stated to consist of 4,000 Negro mercenaries, together with 12,000 Moors, who are chiefly cavalry, and a body of Moorish and Arab militia. Of these, 6,000 are retained near the emperor's person as a guard; the rest are distributed in different parts of the empire, under various military officers. They receive a small pay from the emperor, but they subsist chiefly by plunder. They have no particular habit, being dressed like the other Moors. They are distinguished by their arms, which consist of a sabre, a long barrelled musket, a small box to contain shot, and a powder-horn. They know nothing of discipline; and consequently would be opposed in vain to troops skilled in military evolutions, and accustomed to subordination. In Morocco, the Negro troops have attained much influence in the government; an influence which has sometimes been exerted in the destruction of that power which it was hired to support. Muley Ismael first gave them their consequence in the state. Their number at one time under him is said to have amounted to 100,000. All rise from the ranks of the infantry, and many of them attain to important situations. Thus the same man, it has been observed, who if kidnapped at his parent's door and brought westward, should handle the hoe,—if sold in a northerly direction may come to wield the baton of command, and by his talents be considered the pillar of a State! The fleet belonging to the emperor of Morocco is reported to consist of about 15 small frigates; a few zebecs, and upwards of 20 row-galleys. An admiral is appointed to the command of the whole, but they are seldom collected together, being generally engaged in piratical enterprises in different parts. The number of seamen has been computed at 6,000.

State of Education.] Almost the whole course of education in Morocco consists in learning to read and repeat the Koran; and the different degrees of attainment are marked by the different number of texts which individuals have been taught to repeat. Those who are intended for the church, continue at school till they have imprinted on their memory the whole, or nearly the whole of the Koran; and then they issue forth fully qualified to be the instructors of their countrymen. At Fez, the instruction is, sometimes, extended to a more perfect knowledge of the religion and laws of their country, and a little application is sometimes made to poetry; but it is not to be expected that the progress can be great in a country where literary attainments are neither known nor valued.

Religion.] As has been already observed, the religion of Morocco is Mahommedanism. The places of public worship are consequently denominated *mosques*; and, in this country, they consist of a square court, with a fountain in the middle, and surrounded with piazzas. The fountain is for performing those ablutions which Mahommedanism makes incumbent on its votaries. The piazzas, which are carpeted, are for the purpose of kneeling and offering up the accustomed prayers. A pulpit stands fronting the east, from which a *talbe*, or priest, at particular times, harangues the people. Bells are not allowed. At particular hours, a flag is hoisted on a flag-staff, with which the square steeple is furnished; and the talbe, ascending, loudly calls the people to prayers. Those who are near the mosque immediately repair thither; those at a distance, fall down on their knees, in the first convenient spot. The prayer made use of, shortly expresses the goodness of God, and Mahomet; but so compunctive, in some degree, for its brevity, it is thrice repeated, with several gestures. The hands are raised above the head,—two bows, accompanied by two genuflexions, are followed by a repetition of the bows, and, at the conclusion, the ground is kissed.

PROVINCES, CHIEF TOWNS, &c.] In the absence of clear information regarding the topography of this country, we must here limit ourselves to a few brief notices of the principal towns and the districts to which they belong.

City of Morocco.] Morocco, the capital of the empire, is situated in a valley, upon the N. side of Mount Atlas, in the centre of a vast plain, covered with olive and date-trees, from whose feathering heads arise many a lofty mosque and minaret. To the right of the city there grows, as it were, suddenly from out the dead flat, a mountain, in the centre of which is a deep indent or valley, resembling the crater of an exhausted volcano. To the E. and the W. the plain is unbounded; but to the S. arise before the astonished sight "that stupendous mountain range the Atlas, seeming to mock the efforts of man to pass it, and dividing the mind of the beholder between the thoughts of his own insignificance and the sublime grandeur of his Creator." The city is fortified, in the ancient style, with a wall, flanked with square towers, and surrounded with a ditch of considerable breadth and depth. The palace is of greater extent than magnificence. The mosques are numerous, but their architecture has nothing remarkable. The Jews inhabit a separate quarter of the city, which is walled, and of which the gates are shut at night. When a Jew enters the Moorish part of the city, he is obliged to uncover his feet. The best houses are generally seated in gardens, which gives them a rural appearance; but the streets are narrow, and commonly dirty. Water is brought to the town from a considerable distance by means of pipes. Two weekly fairs are held for the sale of cattle; and three markets each day, in different parts of the city, for the sale of various articles. The castle is large, but ruinous. The plague of Morocco is rats. Those who have not been there, or read the history of Dick Whittington and his Cat, can have no idea of this grievance. As soon as the lights are extinguished in the evening, the whole houses are alive with this abominable vermin. They upset cups, jugs, and basins, and often, Beauclerk says, set the large camp-kettle of the minison a-rolling, and it was impossible to keep them out of the sleeping rooms. The city of Morocco is generally supposed to contain 30,000 inhabitants, although Jackson has assigned to it 270,000!

Mogodore.] The sea-port of Mogodore is situated about 20 hours from Safsee, and 130 from Tangier. It was founded so late as 1760, by the emperor Sidi Mahommed, who laid the foundation of the wall with his own hands, and spared no pains to make it the principal seat of commerce in the empire. He gave the merchants ground to build upon, and allowed them to export produce, duty free. Accordingly, most of the commerce between Europe and the empire of Morocco is now carried on through Mogodore. The town is built on a low flat desert of accumulating sand, which separates it from the cultivated country, and on which it is impossible to raise fruits or vegetables, sufficient for the supply of the inhabitants. These supplies must therefore be brought from gardens at the distance of from 4 to 12 miles. Cattle and poultry are also brought from the other side of a range of sandy hills; and even fresh water cannot be procured at a smaller distance than a mile and a half. On the road between Morocco and Mogodore, captain Beauclerk's party travelled over a low range of table-hills, flat at the top, and all of the same height, with abrupt sides, covered with water-worn stones. They seemed the bottom of a dried-up sea. Mogodore has a very beautiful appearance from the sea, the houses

being all of stone, and white; but its internal appearance is poor, the streets being narrow and dirty, and the houses presenting chiefly a mass of dead wall. Those of the foreign merchants, however, are more spacious, having from eight to twelve rooms on a floor, opening into a gallery which surrounds the house on the inside, and encloses an interior space, which is used as a warehouse. The roofs are flat, and serve for walks in the evening, for which purpose they are greatly preferable to the walks which lie around the place, which present nothing but barren sands drifting with the wind. There are two towns, one of which may more properly be called a citadel, containing the custom-house, treasury, the residence of the alkaid and the houses of the foreign merchants. The harbour is formed by an island to the south of Mogodore, about two miles in circumference, but as the water at ebb-tide is only 10 or 12 feet deep, ships of great burden must anchor about a mile and a half west of what is called the Long battery. This battery extends along the W. side of the town, toward the sea, and was constructed by a Genoese, but is more remarkable for beauty than strength. Within the harbour, at the landing-place, are two long batteries, mounted with 18 pounders. On the land-side, the town is defended by a battery, of force sufficient to keep the Arabs in check. In 1804, the imports into Mogodore were estimated by Mr Jackson at £151,450. They consisted chiefly of sugar, spices, iron, tin, lead, copper, woollens, linens, raw silk, gums, hardware, glass, beads, toys, and a variety of minor articles, with 99,000 Mexican dollars. The exports were: almonds, gums, bees' wax, goat skins, oil of olives, skins, sheep's wool, ostrich-feathers, pomegranates, and dates: the amount reckoned at £127,679. The ports with which Mogodore chiefly communicates, are London, Amsterdam, Leghorn, Lisbon, Cadiz, and Teneriffe. The inhabitants of this sea-port are the finest race of people in Morocco. Their numbers were estimated by Mr Jackson at 10,000.

Saffee.] Saffee, the capital of the province of Abda, is supposed to have been built by the Carthaginians. It has a very fine road, affording safe anchorage, except in winter, when the winds blowing from the S. and S. W. drive vessels out to sea. It was long the centre of European commerce; and the French had several factories here, where they took in great quantities of wool, wax, gum, and leather; but the emperor having founded Mogodore, gave it the monopoly of the trade with Europe, and obliged the merchants to transfer their warehouses thither. The country round is dry and barren; and the Moors of the place are rude, unsociable, and fanatical to such a degree as to forbid any Christian to enter it on horseback. Mr Jackson states the population to be 12,000.

KINGDOM AND CITY OF FEZ.] Fez, situated on the Pearl river, is the capital of the kingdom of that name, which extends southward to the Morbeya, and is bounded on the N. by the straits of Gibraltar; on the E. by Algiers; on the S. and S. E. by Tafilet; on the S. W. by the province of Morocco; and on the N. W. by the Atlantic; and comprehends the districts of *Beni-Hassan, Chaves, Chavoya, Errif, El-Garb, Garet, Habata, Temsena, and Tedla*. The city of Fez is said to be large, and is surrounded by a high wall. The river, which runs through the city, is divided into two streams; and is artificially conducted to almost every quarter of it. These canals supply the fountains, which are found in the courts of every principal house. The river itself falls into the Seboo, which passes within six miles of the city. The buildings, which have generally two floors, some of them three, are of brick or stone; and often ornamented

on the outside with mosaic work. The flat roofs are used by the inhabitants, during summer, as places of repose. Many of them are ornamented with elevated towers. Their chief decorations are carving and gilding. Leo Africanus affirms, that the mosques and other religious edifices in this city were nearly 700 in number, of which 500 were magnificent buildings. At present they do not exceed 200, and the *Caroubin* or *Carrauen*, which is the most celebrated, appeared mean to Ali Bey after the cathedral at Cordova. This traveller says nothing of the 900 lamps which were wont to burn every night in the temple, nor of the great lustre containing 150, made from the bells which the kings of Fez had conquered from Christian churches. He inquired for the complete manuscript of *Livy*, which has been said to exist in the library of this mosque, but his researches were vain, and he was afraid to discover much earnestness upon the subject lest he should render himself suspected. The state in which he found the books was such, that if any such manuscript existed, it has probably mouldered away, or been devoured by the rats. The *Caroubin* is remarkable for having a place where women may attend the public prayers, being the only place of worship in the Mahomedan world where a station is allowed them. This city contains two colleges, of which the decorations are expensive, but the resort of students is small. The system of education, however, is said to be preferable to that afforded by any other part of Barbary; to this place, therefore, the children of the rich are sent, to be instructed in whatever is reckoned agreeable or useful. "To form an idea of their manner of instruction, Ali Bey tells us, we must imagine a man sitting cross-legged on the ground and singing in a lamentable tone, or uttering frightful cries, while fifteen or twenty youths sit in a circle round him, with their books or writing tables in their hands, and in complete discordance repeat his cries and songs. All their studies are confined to the Koran and its commentators, and so much grammar and logic as are necessary to understand what is intelligible in them." In different parts of the city, are found 100 public baths; some of them large and elegant. Several hospitals formerly existed here, but the emperor has seized the funds by which they were supported. People of different professions live in separate streets. The soil, in the neighbourhood, is good; but the oppressive government, by discouraging cultivation, has rendered the country a desert. The town is divided into Beleyde, Old Fez and New Fez. Old Fez is most considerable in size. The inhabitants, according to Jackson, amount to 360,000; Ali Bey, the latest traveller, states them at 100,000; the last plague being supposed to have carried off half the inhabitants. By other authorities, the number is brought down as low as 30,000 souls.

[*Mequinez.*] Mequinez, another city of the kingdom of Fez, has been called the northern capital of Morocco. It is situated 60 miles eastward from the ocean, at Sallee. It stands on a fertile soil, well-watered with small streams. The surrounding country is well cultivated, and yields a variety of fruits. The climate is temperate and healthy. The inhabitants have the reputation of superior polish and hospitality. Like Morocco, Mequinez is surrounded with a wall; like that city too, it has a separate quarter, inhabited by Jews. This quarter is likewise walled; and the gates are shut every night. The buildings of this, and of every other Moorish city, are similar. The streets are narrow, and as they are not paved, they are, in winter, extremely dirty. On one side stands a town, formerly peopled by negroes; and, for that reason, called Negro Town.

It is now uninhabited. The palace is strengthened by two bastions, on which are mounted some small pieces of artillery, used in protecting it from the attacks of the Brebers, or rude pastoral tribes. It has several gardens, adorned with numerous fountains. The inhabitants of Mequinez were estimated by Jackson at 110,000.

Sallee.] Sallee—a name which has decorated many a plaintive ballad—is situated in the province of Beni-hassen, in W. long. $6^{\circ} 40'$, and N. lat. $34^{\circ} 3'$, at the mouth of a river of the same name, formed by the union of two smaller streams, the Buregreb and the Gueroo. It was formerly the great hold of Moorish piracy, and immense depredations were committed by 'the Sallee rovers' upon European commerce. It still retains the traces of its former pursuit in an immense and dreary dungeon formed under ground, which was employed for the reception of the unfortunate captives. The river—which is here about a quarter of a mile broad—formerly admitted large vessels; but sand has accumulated to such a degree that vessels of 150 tons can no longer enter without danger. The town is walled, and has a battery of 24 pieces of cannon, which commands the road, and a redoubt that defends the entrance of the river. On the opposite side of the river stands *Rabat*, or New Sallee, which may properly be considered as another quarter of the same town, and has been chiefly the resort of Europeans, who formed numerous and extensive factories here; and here the commodities of wool, leather, and wax, may still be most abundantly procured, as well as all articles imported most conveniently distributed through the neighbouring country. The preference shown, however, by the emperors, for Mogodore, enforced by absolute power, has prevailed over all its natural advantages; and from the rapid accumulation of sand in the entrance to the river, there is room to predict that it will ere long be frequented by nothing but boats. At the eastern part of the town are to be seen the remains of the ancient town of *Shella*. About a mile from this place is the *Sma Hassan*, a square tower of about 200 feet high, apparently constructed for an observatory, perhaps under the Mohadian dynasty.

Tangier.] A few miles to the E. of cape Spartel, and 30 miles W.S.W. of Gibraltar, is the sea-port of Tangier, properly *Tanja*, the *Tinjis* of the ancients. This town came into the hands of the English in 1662, as part of the marriage-portion of the queen of Charles II.; but it was evacuated by order of our government in 1684, and its fortifications demolished. There is nothing remarkable about this place, except the rapid transition which we witness in it from the civilized society of Europe to Moorish barbarism. The population, according to Ali Bey, was 10,000 souls; Mr Jackson says 6000. Tangier is the residence of the consuls-general of the various European nations who are on amicable terms with the emperor of Morocco.

Tetuan.] The city of Tetuan is very pleasantly situated near the opening of the Straits into the Mediterranean. From Fez, the city is supplied with wares from Tunis, Algiers, Alexandria, and Timbuctoo; from Spain and Gibraltar it imports European merchandise; and in addition to this trade, it has many manufactures of its own.

KINGDOM OF SUZ.] In this southern province is *Agadeer*, better known under the Portuguese name of *Santa Cruz*. It is 76 miles distant from Mogodore, and is situated upon the declivity of a high and steep mountain, forming the western termination of the greater Atlas. The inhabitants do not now exceed 300 souls.—*Taradant* is 44 miles E. from *Santa Cruz*.

It stands in a fine but uncultivated plain, about 20 miles S. of the Atlas range. Jackson says that the river Suse passes through it; but this circumstance is not mentioned by Lempriere, who resided for some time here. Jackson conjectures its population may amount to 25,000 men. The country abounds with olive plantations and gum-bearing shrubs; vines producing purple grapes of enormous size and exquisite flavour, also flourish here; and liquorice root—here called *ark Suse*, or the root of Suse—grows every where. Two straits and difficult passes conduct through the Atlas into this district.

PROVINCE AND CITY OF TAFILET.] The city of Taflet is by the route of the caravans, 20 days' journey from Morocco, across mount Atlas, and 400 miles from the foot of the mountain. Salt is the chief article which this city receives from Morocco; and the great return is young slaves. The people of Taflet live in fortified towns of about 400 families in each. The country is a flat plain, which is annually inundated and fertilized, like Egypt, by the swelling of a river which flows through it. This inundation is celebrated by the natives with great rejoicing. The heat is intense, and it never rains. Deer and ostriches are numerous.

Authorities.] Shaw's Travels in Barbary. 4to. Lond. 1757.—Letters written during a residence in Tripoli. By Tully. 2 vols. 8vo.—Lempriere's Tour through Morocco.—Macgill's Account of Tunis. Lond. 1811.—Jackson's Account of Morocco. 4to. 1811.—Blaquiere's Letters from the Mediterranean. 2 vols. 8vo. Lond. 1813.—Ali Bey's Travels in Morocco. 2 vols. 4to. Lond. 1816.—Keatinge's Travels. 2 vols. 4to. Lond. 1816.—Pananti's Narrative. 4to. Lond. 1818.—Salame's Expedition to Algiers. 8vo. 1819.—Della Cella's Travels in Barbary. By Anfrere. 8vo. 1822.—Beechy's Account of the Syrtis and Cyrenaica, &c. 4to. Lond. 1828.—The Italian Spectator has announced the speedy publication of an interesting work in 4 or 5 large octavo volumes, by count Camillo Borgia, on the history, antiquities, and statistics of Tunis.

EASTERN COAST.

NOTWITHSTANDING the considerable traffic which has been carried on by the Portuguese with the Eastern coast of the African continent and the inland districts of this quarter, these countries are still very imperfectly known. A survey, however, of the coast has been in part executed, and is now executing, by order of the British government. Besides the incorrectness of the general outline of this coast, the geographical position of every place, except Mozambique, and some other of the principal Portuguese settlements on the eastern coast, were so erroneously laid down in the current charts, as to be in many cases totally unserviceable and bewildering to navigators. To obviate this inconvenience, our government fitted out an expedition in the autumn of 1821, under captain Owen, which was employed between five and six years in executing extensive surveys of the eastern coast of the African continent, and of the coasts of Madagascar; and, with a perseverance worthy of an enlightened and maritime nation, our government continues to direct scientific inquiry towards these coast-districts, as well as the interior of Africa. While we write, captain Boteler, who served under captain Owen, is completing a survey of the north-western coasts of this continent, from the straits of Gibraltar to the Cape de Verd islands. It is chiefly to the information supplied through the public journals, by captain Owen's expedition, that we are indebted for the following notices of the south-eastern coast of Africa. We regret that no official account of the researches of this expedition has yet been given to the public,

I. ZANGUEBAR.

Zanguebar, the country of the *Zingues*, is a part of the African coast, of which the boundaries and extent are entirely uncertain. By the Arabian geographers, it is made to extend from Abyssinia, as far as the territory of the Makonaa, in which case it will extend to the coast of Mozambique. Others make the coast of Mozambique extend so far as to include the coast of Zanguebar. It seems to be at least as proper, however, to consider them as separate portions of the coast. In this case, Zanguebar may extend from 3°, or rather from the equator, to 10° S. lat. The principal territories included in this region are: *Pate*, *Jubo*, *Membazo*, *Lamo*, *Melinda* and *Quiloo*,—this last is dependant upon the Portuguese. The island of Quiloo, with the city of the same name, is situated opposite a peninsula formed by two great rivers, the most important of which is called *Coava*. The coast, which is low, marshy, and consequently unhealthy, is said to abound in elephants; and to produce all the tropical fruits and vegetables common in Africa. The inhabitants are partly Mahomedans, and partly attached to their original system of Paganism. A few have, by the influence of the Portuguese, preferred Christianity. The articles of trade are gold, ivory, slaves, drugs, wax, and ostrich-feathers.

Mombassa.] Mombassa is an island in 4° 3' S. lat., and 39° 41' E. long., about 14 miles in circumference, situated at the mouth of two rivers, about 200 yards from the mainland. It is very fertile and rather high. It was at one time in possession of the Portuguese, who fortified the place

very strongly, but the fortifications are going fast to decay; they having been driven out by the Arabs in the year 1631. The Arab inhabitants of this island are now intermarried with the *Sochilles*, the native tribe of the place. The harbours are very fine. The chief commerce is ivory and gum-copal, which articles are brought into the island by an inland tribe, called Whanekas. Captain Owen endeavoured to form an English settlement upon this island; but we believe the design has miscarried.

II. MOZAMBIQUE.

This country, extending northwards to Zanguebar, and southwards to Mocaranga, was seized by the Portuguese in 1497. The northern part of the government of Mozambique is called *Querimbe*. The principal nation on the coast is the *Macouas*,—a name which, in the dialects of southern Africa, merely signifies a 'white man,' and is applied by the inhabitants of the interior, indifferently, to the Dutch and English at the Cape, or to the Arabs and Portuguese on the shores of Mozambique. The *Monjous* and *Muzimbes* live in the interior. The city of Mozambique is situated in E. long. 40° 40', and S. lat. 15° 2'. This grand emporium of Eastern Africa was rich, conspicuous, and flourishing, long before it became blessed with European visitors. It was found to be inhabited by that description of people whom the Portuguese distinguish by the appellation of *Maors*, and to whom the sole trade of these seas belonged. The capability of such a harbour as Mozambique could not escape the notice of such seamen as the Portuguese; and its central situation, which is most eligible for the command of the trade of the east coast, Madagascar, Arabia, and the Red Sea, also prompted them to establish a settlement here. The merchants of this place derived their opulence, and the city its magnificence, from the immense slave-trade, which was till lately carried on; but with the decline of that traffic, every Portuguese settlement must suffer. It affords to an Englishman but little of what he esteems comfort or convenience. Ships in want of supplies will not find Mozambique an eligible place. Port-charges, and other expenses, are uncommonly high. Stores and provisions are extravagant, and, except indifferent cattle, generally scarce. It is nearly barren of fruits and vegetables, those things being cultivated only by some few of the natives, who raise barely sufficient for the city's consumption. A number of cocoa-nut trees grow on the island and the main, but the demand for the nuts is greater than the produce, and they are generally gathered in a very immature state. The chief manufacture is rope, made from the fibres of the trunk of the cocoa-nut, or palm. It is in general use among the vessels belonging to this and similar ports; it is serviceable and lasting for some purposes, but for cables or hawsers totally unfit for ships which have to navigate rougher seas. The shoals in the vicinity abound with many varieties of curious and beautiful shells. The conchologist might, indeed, here revel to satiety. They are sought for, towards the finish of every ebb, with earnestness, by the poorer natives on both sides the harbour, for the fish which inhabit them. The shells are neither preserved nor valued; and the beach, at every interval of spring-tide, is strewn with the fragments of specimens which would form the most perfect collection existing. The waters are also well-stored with fish, particularly two or three very fine species of *sparus*, and as these form a large part of the food of the inhabitants, the harbour and offing will generally be seen covered with fishing vessels. The canoes used here are very diminutive, and extremely crank. The people, however, who are accustomed

to them, will make no hesitation about weather, when their occupation requires them to be afloat. Messengers have occasionally been despatched hence to cross the country to Angola, and other settlements on the opposite coast; "but we were informed," say the officers of captain Owen's expedition, "that these Mercuries were always of the sable description, as the inhabitants of the interior would, on no account, admit white persons within their dominions. This was recently confirmed to us at Angola, though it appears that the custom has more than once been departed from." The Portuguese and African slave-merchants have often conducted convoys of negroes from Angola to Sena, and from Sena to Angola. The two parts of *Pedras-Negras* in the interior of Ango, and *Chicova* in the interior of *Monomotapa*, are the respective points of departure. The distance is said to be 325 leagues, and its performance occupies a whole season. Wandering herds are frequently encountered; and elevated plateaus are crossed where gold-dust is collected.

III. MOCARANGA.

MOCARANGA, better known by the name of *Monomotapa*, is bounded on the N. by the coast of Mozambique; on the E. by the Indian ocean; on the S. by the territory of Delagoa; and on the W., by countries in the interior, of which we are almost entirely ignorant, but which are supposed to be possessed by those tribes who have received the general appellation of Caffres. According to these boundaries, it includes the maritime district of Sofala, and Sabia, which have sometimes been reckoned separate kingdoms. The longitude of its western boundary is not known.

Mocaranga is watered by several considerable rivers, of which the *Zambese*, by some called *Zambora*, is the chief. It is said, by the natives, to rise from a great lake. It has in its course a large cataract, and falls into the sea by several mouths, one of which, the *Quilimane*, is occasionally described as the main river. In April it overflows the country. From this circumstance great fertility is produced, though a large part of the country is uncultivated, and covered with forests, which however shelter numerous herds of elephants, whose teeth afford an important article of commerce. Ivory is indeed so cheap and plentiful here as to be purchasable from the natives at less than 4d. the pound; but the colonial regulations which govern the whole of these establishments, disallow, under the penalty of confiscation, any commercial intercourse with other nations. The attempt has, however, been made of late by one or two small English vessels, but it is supposed to have been performed by a mutual understanding with the governor, who here, as elsewhere, will never hesitate about presenting a few hundreds of ivory, in return for an equivalent of European commodities. Gold is said to abound in the interior, especially at *Zambo* in S. lat. 18° and E. long. 27°, whither it is brought from Abatus, a distance of 360 miles to the westward. To the same spot considerable quantities of ivory come, which is said to be procured in the countries along the Orange river. Although the inhabitants of this country live so far south of the line, they are entirely black with woolly hair, and all the characteristics of the African negro. In other respects they are well-shaped, robust, and healthy. In many of their customs they resemble the Abyssinians, particularly in their mode of hunting, and dressing their hair. They wear, like them, a singular species of horn over the head; and a prince who is in any respect mutilated is excluded from the crown. Their wives are all purchased, and they are universally pagans.

Sofala.] Of all the Portuguese settlements on the coast of Africa, *Sofala*, included by some geographers in the kingdom of *Botanga*, appears by far the most productive in gold dust. It is the Ophir of this part of the world, and there is every reason to suppose that it exported large quantities thereof long prior to any European intrusion. *Zimbao*, at the upper part of the *Manica* river, is the residence of the king of the river and of the territory of *Sofala*. The Portuguese have two fairs here at which the inhabitants of *Sofala* and *Sepa* traffic. *Sepa* is about 40 or 50 leagues distant from *Manica*, the intervening states being *Barra* and *Macumba*. Bordering upon *Sepa* is the small independent territory of the *Mongos*. The *Botangas* live along the *Manica* far inland. The *Bororos*, another people, are situated to the N. and E. of this river.

Inhamitane.] This province stretches along the coast between *Sofala* on the N. and the bay of *Lorenzo-Marquez* on the S. The dress of the natives of this province is peculiarly graceful. It consists of a kind of kilt, of any colour, in the manner of the Scottish Highlander; several yards of cloth are thrown over the left shoulder, leaving the right arm at liberty; their cap is cloth or skin, the lower part of which is ornamented with pieces of brass, or buttons, and resembles, at a distance, a plaided band; feathers of various kinds wave therein; bracelets and anklets are worn in profusion, and, upon the whole, their costume is the most interesting that this part of the continent affords. The lance, or *assagye*, is here the favourite weapon. The province of *Inhamitane* formerly exported vast numbers of slaves to the *Brazils*. Its direct trade is now subverted, but it forwards occasional cargoes to *Mozambique*, and of 40,000 slaves imported into the *Brazils* in 1829, there is reason to believe that a large proportion was from this quarter.¹

IV. DELAGOA.

DELAGOA, a territory so named from *Delagoa* bay, around which it is situated, is a country of which the interior boundaries and extent are altogether uncertain. It is under the power of different princes; and no doubt, by the natives, is distinguished into various districts, known by peculiar names. Of these districts and names, however, we are ignorant; our knowledge being still limited to the coasts.

Rivers.] Three rivers empty themselves into the bay. The *Manica*, which is the most northern, was once navigable, but the navigation is now obstructed by a bar at its mouth. The *Machavanna*, which is the most southern, is navigable 30 leagues from its mouth by boats which draw 6 feet of water. The river *Delagoa*, the central river, is distant about 80 leagues from the *Machavanna*, and is navigable for nearly 200 miles by large boats, and for more than 40 miles by vessels which draw 12 feet of water. It has a bar with about 15 feet on it at low water; about two miles up the river, vessels lie in sufficient depth, and safe from every wind.

Delagoa Bay.] *Delagoa* Bay, as its name implies, is a commanding expanse of water, with several woody islands; its navigation for vessels of

¹ "Formerly," remarked one of the Portuguese commandants to the officers of captain Owen's expedition, "the natives of my district had spirit enough to surrender their liberty for a very trifling compensation. Without any reluctance they would barter their own and their family's freedom for even one intoxicating revel; but, unfortunately, such is the change of ideas, that at present it is with difficulty they can be prevailed upon to do it. Notwithstanding the powerful arguments which we urge on this head, they prefer their poverty, nakedness, and paganism, to the abundance, comfort, and religious consolations afforded by *Brazil*!"

burden is extremely intricate, but this difficulty surmounted, it has natural advantages of which few places can boast. Had the slave-trade never existed here, and the means of the Portuguese been diverted to other pursuits, this part of Caffraria would long since have been their most valuable possession, from the richness of the country in the back-ground,—the quantity of ivory, gums, and other valuable commodities, which the natives bring in from the interior, and the numbers of cetaceous animals with which the bay abounds. The number of whales found in Delagoa bay at peculiar seasons, as well as throughout the Mozambique channel, is incredible. The whales taken here are smaller than those met with in the Greenland seas, but were they only to yield from 10 to 15 tons each, their plentifulness would compensate for diminution of size.—The *Mafame*, a considerable stream, flows into this bay.

Productions.] The soil is fertile, productive of rice and maize, which are sown in December or January. The dry season lasts from April to October. Many species of fruit are found; and sugar-canes are plentiful. The forests are inhabited by the panther, rhinoceros, antelope, wild hog, hare, and rabbit. Tame cattle are abundant. Among the fowls may be numbered wild geese, ducks, quails, partridges, Guinea-hens, and several species of singing birds. Turtles are taken upon some of the islands on the coast. Many kinds of excellent fish are caught in the rivers and seas. The rivers of Delagoa swarm with the hippopotami, and numbers are annually taken, being either entrapped, or wounded by assegys, so as to cause their destruction. It was only at a very recent period that the Portuguese of this settlement paid any attention to the collecting of the teeth of this animal, but finding their sale to be very brisk at Mozambique, they are now sought for with extreme avidity. During the exploring a branch of the Lorenzo Marquez by captain Owen's boats, one of these enormous animals rose by the side of a boat, and taking her in his jaws, at once tore away seven planks from her side and bottom. The forests are inhabited by vast herds of elephants, equal in number to those found in any part of this extensive country. Captain Owen was informed that 120 tons of ivory were commonly received at Mozambique annually from this settlement, and that this quantity was in no way considered an extraordinary importation. The climate of Delagoa Bay is said to be healthy; but it would appear that there are pestiferous swamps to the S. of it.

Natives.] The natives of Delagoa, who are all warriors like the Caffres, are armed with light, well-made assegys, perhaps six or eight to each man. Each is provided with a shield, cut out from the hide of a bullock, in the brackets of which he carries his spare assegys, and which thus becomes his quiver. They launch these weapons with great force and dexterity, and can strike a very small object at 80 yards, with sufficient strength for execution. Being continually subject to attacks from the neighbouring tribes, under the general name of *Orontatos*, they are constantly in preparation for war. Among the arts of the Delagonians may be mentioned the erection of their huts formed by a kind of wicker process, and rendered very compact. Wooden dishes they make, and other utensils, which, considering the rudeness of their implements, are of extraordinary workmanship, and quite sufficient to prove that they are possessed of a considerable share of taste and ingenuity. The women of this district are universally given to prostitution. The Portuguese lay claim to the entire coast between Cape Guardafui northwards, to the first point of Natal southwards,—a tract of coast of about 2,600 miles. Captain Owen attempted to form British

settlements at Delagoa and Mombazo, but he does not appear to have been encouraged in this attempt by our government. Perhaps the Portuguese right to this country is unchallengeable. However, in 1824 a British settlement was founded at Natal, which it is expected will keep up communication with the nearest Cape district, Albany; and we believe that the Wesleyan missionaries have in fact explored the whole country, between the frontiers of Albany and Natal, and established a new station beyond Caffreland in S. lat. 32°. But we will have occasion to revert to the geography of this region and the neighbouring districts, in our account of Caffraria.

Authorities.] Ramusio, Collection des Voyages.—Collin's Notices.—Salt's Second Journey.—Tellez, Historia General.—Missionary Reports, *passim*.

NIGRITIA.

HAVING sketched the northern continent and the north eastern coast of Africa, we will now penetrate into the interior, and describe its mysterious regions, cities, rivers, and nations, as well as the few materials which we yet possess for this purpose will enable us.

Extent and Boundaries.] *Nigritia*, or Negro-land, is a name given by Europeans to a great extent of country, of which the various parts have only an imaginary connexion. The natives by no means consider the territory called by this name as forming a whole; even Europeans are far from being unanimous concerning the extent of country to which this appellation is to be applied. The territory which is here denominated *Nigritia* is bounded on the N. by the Great Desert; on the W. by Lower Guinea: and on the S. by the river Mesurada and the mountains of Kong. The eastern boundary is undetermined.

CHAP. I.—GENERAL REMARKS.

Rivers.] *Nigritia* contains some of the chief rivers of Africa, the *Senegal*, the *Gambia*, the *Rio Grande*, and the *Niger*. These four rivers, the geography of which we have already sketched in our introductory view of this continent, were long supposed to be one river.

Climate.] The proximity of *Nigritia* to the equator assures us that it must be a warm region; the heat, however, is seldom excessive; for though the country be not mountainous, it is interspersed with numerous inequalities which tend to give a circulation to the atmosphere. The more elevated situations enjoy a temperature which is said to be agreeable even to Europeans. The rainy season, which commences in June, is introduced by violent tornadoes; it continues till November, and terminates with tornadoes similar to those by which it was introduced. During this season, the wind generally blows from the S.W. The prevailing winds during the dry season, are from the N.E. We have already described the *harmattan*, a wind of a very singular nature, which prevails here as in other parts of Africa.

Productions.] The animals found in this extensive tract of country are nearly the same as those in other quarters of this continent. *Nigritia*, like all tropical countries, abounds in fruits; but it seems to want several of the species which in America are found in the same latitude. Park did not observe here either the sugar-cane, the coffee, or the cocoa-tree. The pine-apple was equally unknown. A few orange and banana-trees were seen near the sea, but they were suspected to have been introduced by the Portuguese in their early visits to the coast. Among the vegetable productions of this extensive territory, none are more remarkable than the lotus, which furnishes the negroes with a sweet liquor and a species of bread; and the *shea*, a tree resembling the American oak, of which the fruit, when

dried in the sun and boiled in water, yields a species of vegetable butter, which Park thought preferable to the best butter made of cows' milk. Like the sugar-maple in America, the shea grows spontaneously. The Negroes carefully collect the fruit; and the butter, when prepared, forms a great article of inland commerce. The common species of grain are the same as those cultivated in Guinea. Many parts of Negroland, like several districts of Guinea, are productive of gold; but it does not appear that the Negroes have any where opened mines. After the annual inundations have subsided, a great number of people are employed collecting the mud which the streams have brought from the mountains. By an operation somewhat tedious, the small particles of gold, generally called *gold-dust*, are separated from the mud and sand with which they are incorporated. This operation consists in repeated washings, and is always performed by the women. The sand is not always procured from the bed of a river. It is sometimes dug from such veins of earth as the Negroes judge most likely to contain the precious metal. Park informs us, that, in a proper soil, a person of diligence is supposed with ease to collect, in one season, as much gold dust as its value amounts to the price of two slaves. Little of this gold is carried to the coast. The greater part is given to the Moors in exchange for salt,—a commodity which in Negroland is very scarce. According to Park, to say that a man 'eats salt with his meat,' is here equivalent to saying that he is rich.

Population.] Mahe Bruns is of opinion that the Arabs had penetrated into Nigritia at a period long antecedent to the time of Pliny and Ptolemy. Ritter, in his transcendental system of geography, regards Central Africa, especially the Soudan districts, as that part of the world in which the primitive forms, so to speak, of the human race, its physical development, and manners, may best be traced. The population of such parts of Negroland as were visited by Park, appeared to him not to be proportional to the fertility of the soil. From this we are not to imagine, however, that the country is thin of inhabitants. Towns are numerous, and many of them of considerable magnitude. The sea-coast has fewer inhabitants than the interior,—a circumstance which arises from the unhealthiness of the former. The same cause has retarded the population of the banks of the Senegal and Gambia. In this extensive country, though occupied by numerous distinct tribes, there is much similarity in the prevalent manners and customs; but we refer our readers to our account of the pagan nations of Western Africa for a general description of Negro manners and customs.

CHAP. II.—BEGHARMI—BERGOO.

BEGHARMI appears to comprehend a very large region of fertile country, bounded on the E. by Darfour, on the S. by Darkalla, on the W. by Bornou, on the N.W. by the Wady-el-Ghazel, and on the N.E. by Bergoo. Wady and Bergoo indeed seem to be either subdivisions of Begharmi, or a continuation of the same physical region northward and eastward. "The inhabitants of Wa-da-i and Baghar-mee," says an Arabian author, "are nearly of the same description. Baghar-mee, however, is now desolated. The cause of its ruin was, as they say, the misconduct of her king, who having increased in licentiousness to such a frightful degree as even to marry his own daughter, God Almighty caused Saboon, the Prince of Wa-da-i, to march against him and destroy him, laying waste at the same

time all his country, and leaving the houses uninhabited, as a signal chastisement for his impiety. These provinces are bounded on the N. by deserts and dry sands, which, in the spring only, are frequented by herdsmen; and on the S., by a great many countries inhabited by various tribes of *soodan* (blacks,) each of whom speak a different language, and among whom Islamism is not much spread." Begharmi must have recovered from this inroad; for it has long maintained a fierce war with Bornou, and major Denham relates many anecdotes of the unconquerable intrepidity of the Begharmese. The capital of Begharmi, according to Hornemann, is called *Mernah*. At the beginning of the 18th century it was *Karnah* on the Bahr-el-Ghazal. Major Denham mentions *Kernuk* as its capital, but does not describe its situation.

Bergoo.] Bergoo is a name given to several distinct tracts, and is probably a descriptive term. The Bergoo or *Waday* of the merchants of Fezzan and Tripoli, and the *Mobba* of the Negroes, is bounded on the E. by Nubia and Darfoor, on the S. by Darkulla, and on the W. by Begharmi. It is 15 days' journey from E. to W. and 20 from N. to S. Its capital is Wara; and its S.W. part is watered by the *Misselad*. The *hadjili* tree is one of its peculiar productions; it yields a fruit resembling the date; and its wood, which is very hard, is used for writing-tablets. Copper is said to be found in its mountains; its forests abound in elephants, rhinoceroses, giraffes, and antelopes. Captain Lyon was informed that the slaves brought to Fezzan from Waday are procured from *Kola*, *Tama*, *Runga*, and various petty states in the vicinity.

FITTE.] The district or province of Fittre seems to be comprehended in the kingdom of Bergoo. It is sometimes called *Liesri* or *Lusri*. It contains a great lake which is said to be 4 days' journey in circuit, even in the dry season. This lake appears to lie E.N.E. from Lake Tchad, and is considered by some geographers as the *Nuba Palus* of Ptolemy, and the *Cauga* of Edrisi. A sheikh of the Dagganah Arabs informed major Denham that the inhabitants of the surrounding districts call this lake the water of Darfoor, and the water of the Shillooks, and that it is traversed by a stream coming from the S.W. which they affirm to be the Nile. M. Koenig was informed by a Bornouese that a great lake, which he called *Aikachin-Koumri* lay to the W. of Darfoor.

CHAP. III.—BORNOU—MANDARA.

Extent and Boundaries.] The kingdom of Bornou, in its present state, comprises the region lying between Lake Tchad on the E. and Houssa on the W. On the N. it is bounded by Kanem and the Desert. Southward it touches on the kingdoms of Mandara and Loggun; and on the S. E. the river Shary, flowing northward into the Tchad, divides it from Begharmi. This tract is comprehended between the parallels of 15 and 10° N. and the meridians of 12° and 18° E. "Some idea may be formed," says major Denham, "of the importance of the Bornou empire before the Felatah conquest, by the fact of the sultan's having possessed 80,000 armed slaves. Kanem, Waday, and Darfoor to the E. and Afnou to the W. were, at no distant period, tributary to the sultan of Bornou; while, to the south, their influence extended to the Mountains of the Moon."

Recent History.] Achmet Ali, who occupied the throne in 1808, is said to have been descended from a royal line of ancestors. He contended for several years against the rising power of the Felatahs of Soodan, but

was at length overcome and deprived of his possessions. The Felatahs: however, did not long retain possession of the territory. Shortly after the conquest, sheikh Alameen el Kanemy, who now holds the reins of sovereignty, formed the project of delivering the country from the bondage into which it had fallen. Born in Fezzan, of Kanemboos parentage, though, on the father's side, descended from a Moor, Alameen had, after visiting Egypt, proceeded to Kanem as sheikh of the Koran; where, by the correctness of his life and the benevolence of his disposition, he made himself greatly respected and beloved. The miracles and cures which he wrought by writing charms, became the theme of the surrounding country. In fact, he became invested with all the mysterious influence of a Maraboot. Having stirred up the Kanemboos to assist him, by means of a well-planned tale of having been called by a vision to the patriotic enterprise, he made his first campaign with scarcely 400 followers, at the head of whom he defeated an army of the Felatahs nearly 8000 strong. This victory he followed up with great promptitude and resolution; and in less than ten months he had been the conqueror in forty different battles. "Nature," says major Denham, "had bestowed on him all the qualifications for a great commander; an enterprising genius, sound judgment, features engaging, with a demeanour gentle and conciliating. And so little of vanity was mixed with his ambition, that he refused the offer of being made sultan; and, placing Mohammed, the brother of sultan Achmet, on the throne, he, first doing homage himself, insisted on the whole army following his example. The sheikh built for sultan Mohammed his present residence, New Birnie, establishing himself at Angornou, three miles distant, and retaining the dictatorship of the kingdom *pro tempore*. Such a commencement was also extremely politic on the part of the sheikh; but his aspiring mind was not calculated to rest satisfied with such an arrangement. The whole population now flocked to his standard, and appeared willing to invest him with superior power, and a force to support it. One of the first offers they made, was to furnish him with twenty horses per day, until a more regular force was organized, which continued for four years. He now raised the green flag, the standard of the Prophet; refused all titles but that of the 'Servant of God'; and after clearing the country of the Felatahs, he proceeded to punish all those nations who had given them assistance; and with the slaves, the produce of these wars, rewarded his faithful Kanemboos and other followers for their fidelity and attachment.

"Even in the breasts of some of the Bornouese, successful war had raised a passion for conquest: their victories not less a matter of surprise than delight, crest-fallen and dispirited as they were, gave a stimulus to their exertions, and they became accustomed to warfare and regardless of danger. If he has impressed his followers with a belief that supernatural powers are vested in their leader, much good policy as well as superstition may have influenced his conduct. No one could have used greater endeavours to substitute laws of reason for practices of barbarity; and, though feared, he is loved and respected. 'When lenity and cruelty play for a kingdom, the gentlest gamester is the soonest winner.' Compared to all around him, he is an angel, and has subdued more by his generosity, mildness, and benevolent disposition, than by the force of his arms. He is completely the winner of his own honour and reputation, and assumes to himself the title of Liberator or Salvator, as delivering the country he governs, his own adopted one, from servitude to strangers and tyrants; and his highest ambition is to restore the empire of Bornou to its former splen-

dear and vast extent. His life, however, will most likely be too short for this great work, unless his means for carrying on offensive war should be surprisingly increased. For the last eight years, the sheikh has carried on a very desperate and bloody war with the sultan of Begharmi, who governs a powerful and warlike people, inhabiting a very large tract of country south of Bornou, and on the eastern bank of the Shary.¹ Although meeting with some reverses, and on one occasion losing his eldest son in these wars, who was greatly beloved by the people, he has, upon the whole, been successful; and is said to have, from first to last, destroyed and led into slavery, more than thirty thousand of the sultan of Begharmi's subjects, besides burning his towns and driving off his flocks.

"The late sultan of Bornou, who always accompanied the sheikh to the field, also lost his life in these wars: his death was attributable to his immense size and weight. The horse he rode refused to move on with him from fatigue, although at the time not more than 500 yards from the gates of Angala, and he fell into the hands of the enemy. He died, however, with great dignity; and six of his eunuchs and as many of his slaves who would not quit him, shared his fate. A sultan of Bornou carries no arms, and it is beneath his dignity to defend himself: sitting down, therefore, under a tree, with his people around him, he received his enemies, and hiding his face in the shawl which covered his head, was pierced with a hundred spears. Ibrahim, his brother, succeeded him, who is now not more than twenty-two years old. The sultanhip of Bornou, however, is but a name: the court still keeps up considerable state, and adheres strictly to its ancient customs, and this is the only privilege left them. El-Kanemay is a most interesting and aspiring chief, and an extraordinary, if not a solitary instance, in the eastern world, of a man raising himself to sovereign power, from a humble station, without shedding blood by the assassin's knife, or removing those who stood in his way by the bowstring or the poisoned cup."

Physical Features. The whole country of Bornou is flat, and by far the greater part is covered with thick underwood, high coarse grass, and parasitical plants.

Lake Tchad. We have already adverted to the existence of this vast lake. It was first beheld by Dr Oudney and his companions on their reaching Lari, the frontier town of Bornou, situated in about 14° 20' N. lat., and nearly on the same meridian with Moorzouk. Major Denham speedily hastened to view this greatest of the interior African waters: "By sun-rise," says he, "I was on the borders of the lake, armed for the destruction of the multitude of birds, who, all unconscious of my purpose, seemed as it were to welcome our arrival. Flocks of geese and wild ducks, of a most beautiful plumage, were quietly feeding at within half pistol shot of where I stood; and not being a very keen or inhuman sportsman, for the terms appear to me to be synonymous, my purpose of deadly warfare was almost shaken. As I moved towards them, they only changed their places a little to the right or left, and appeared to have no idea of the hostility of my intentions. All this was really so new, that I hesitated to abuse the confidence with which they regarded me, and very quietly sat down to contemplate the scene before me. Pelicans, cranes, four or five feet in height, grey, variegated and white, were scarcely so many yards from my side, and a bird, between a snipe and a woodcock, resembling both and larger than either; immense spoonbills of a snowy whiteness, wigeon, teal, yellow-legged

¹ He was also engaged in a contest with the ruler of Waday, for the possession of Kanem.

plover, and a hundred species of (to me at least,) unknown water-fowl, were sporting before me; and it was long before I could disturb the tranquillity of the dwellers on these waters by firing a gun. The soil near the edges of the lake was a firm dark mud; and in proof of the great overflows and recedings of the waters, even in this advanced dry season, the stalks of the gussub, of the preceding year were standing in the lake, more than forty yards from the shore. The water is sweet and pleasant, and abounds with fish." After eight days travelling along the western shore of the lake, they came to another important feature—the *Yéou*, a very considerable stream, flowing from the west, and falling into the Tchad. It was about fifty yards broad, and two canoes lay on the bank, to ferry over goods and passengers. These vessels, though large, were very rudely constructed, of planks fastened together with cords. They received twenty or thirty persons, while the camels and horses swam with their heads made fast to the boats. Every one of the Arabs said this was the Nile. The Tchad may be about 200 miles in length, and 150 in breadth. It thus forms one of the largest bodies of fresh water in the world, though it cannot rival the mighty inland seas of Asia. Its dimensions vary in an extraordinary manner according to the season. An extent of many miles, usually dry, is submerged during the rains. This inundated tract, covered with impenetrable thickets, and with rank grass twice the human height, is unfit for the residence of men, and becomes a huge den of wild beasts; elephants of enormous dimensions, beneath whose reclining bodies large shrubs, and even young trees were seen crushed; lions, panthers, leopards, large flocks of hyenas, and snakes of monstrous bulk. It is a disastrous era when the returning waters dislodge these monsters of the wood, and drive them to seek their prey among the habitations of men. At this period travellers, and the persons employed in watching the harvests, often fall victims; nay, the hyenas have been known to carry walled towns by storm, and devour the herds which had been driven into them for shelter.

Climate.] Major Denham considers the climate quite as salubrious as that of any other country of the torrid zone, and preferable to many. The variation of the barometer is almost imperceptible; but the heat is intense. From March to the end of June, the thermometer at 2 p. m. will sometimes rise to 105° and 107°, and suffocating winds from the S. and S. E. then prevail. The nights are also dreadfully oppressive. This country is visited by violent tempests of lightning, thunder, and rain towards the middle of May, and before the end of June large tracts of country are converted into lakes. In October the winter-season commences, with breezes from the N. W. In December and January the thermometer never exceeds 75°, and sometimes sinks to 58°.

Productions.] Bornou, especially on the shore of the Tchad and along the Shary abounds in domestic animals, such as cows, sheep, goats, horses, camels, and buffaloes. Bullocks are the medium of commerce for every thing; from 100 to 150 of these animals are given for a good horse. Abundance of fowls are reared, and hives of bees are extremely plentiful. In some places are found lions, leopards, civet-cats, small wolves, foxes, wild dogs, and an animal called *koorigum*, about the size of a red-deer, with annulated horns. Elephants are sometimes seen, but are not numerous; and in the rivers are found the crocodile and hippopotamus, of both of which the flesh is eaten. The country is much infested with reptiles, particularly snakes and scorpions. Among the game may be enumerated many species of antelopes, partridges, wild ducks, and ostriches. The flesh

of the ostrich is considered as the greatest luxury. "In this fine climate, there is not a vegetable raised except the onion, and that very sparingly; there is not a fruit, except a few limes in the garden of the sheikh. They have neither bread, the most solid and valuable basis of human food, nor salt, regarded every where else as a necessary condiment. Instead of the finer grains of wheat or rice, they raise gussub, a species of small grain, or rather seed, which, being boiled to a paste, and melted fat poured over it, the *ne plus ultra* of Bornou cookery is produced. Working in iron, among nations whose chiefs at least are martial, has usually got a start beyond other arts. But when Hillman the English carpenter undertook to repair a small field-piece, and obtained for that purpose the assistance of the best Bornou workmen, he was kept in a state of perpetual agony by the clumsiness with which they handled their tools. The only manufacture in which they have attained to any kind of excellence, is that of cotton cloth dyed blue with their fine indigo, the tobes or pieces of which are the current coin of the realm; and yet in this staple fabric of Central Africa, they are much excelled by the people of Nigritia, and those to the south. The bare necessities of life, however, exist in abundance. The cattle are bred in vast herds by an Arab tribe called Shouaas, who have transported into Bornou all the pastoral habits of their nation. Sometimes the daughter or the wife of a rich Shouaa will be mounted on her particular bullock, and precede the loaded animals; extravagantly adorned with amber, silver rings, coral, and all sorts of finery, her hair streaming with fat, a black rim of *kohol*, at least an inch wide, round each of her eyes, and I may say, arrayed for conquest at the crowded market. Carpets or tobes are then spread on her clumsy palfrey: she sits on her *jambe d'écaille*, and with considerable grace guides her animal by his nose. Notwithstanding the peaceableness of his nature, her vanity still enables her to torture him into something like caperings and curvetings."

[*Inhabitants.*] The population of Bornou is said to be very great. Within the bounds of the empire, we are informed, that no less than 30 languages are spoken; but this, though it were true, is not an unequivocal proof of the number of inhabitants. Major Denham estimated the population at 5,000,000. The complexion of the Bornouese, or *Kanoury* as they call themselves, is entirely black; but their features are different from the general features of Negroes. The women are cleanly, but not good-looking. Both sexes are distinguished by high foreheads. Major Denham confesses that after entering the Negro country, his eye soon became quite reconciled to the complexion of the women, 'the shadowed livery of the burning sun.' The following paragraph occurs in his work: "Though many degrees fairer, and nearer our own blue-eyed beauties in complexion, when moderately cleansed and washed, yet no people ever lost more by comparison than did the white ladies of Mourzook with the black ones of Bornou and Soudan. That the latter were black there is no denying; but their beautiful forms, expressive eyes, pearly teeth, and excessive cleanliness, rendered them far more pleasing than the dirty half-castes we were now amongst." The dress consists of a robe of blue cotton-cloth, a turban formed of folds of cotton-cloth brought from Cairo, and a red cap from Tripoli. Among the lower ranks, a girdle round the waist sometimes constitutes the only covering. Ben Ali informs us, that the principal people are distinguished by rings of gold worn in the nose. The *tattooing* common to all Negro nations in these latitudes, is here particularly unbecoming. They have 20 cuts or lines on each side of the face, drawn from the corner of

the mouth towards the angles of the lower jaw and cheek-bone. They have also 1 cut in the centre of the forehead, 6 on each arm, 6 on each leg and thigh, 4 on each breast, and 9 on each side just above the hips. The *Showaa* Arabs are a fine race of men, bearing scarcely any resemblance to the Northern Arabs, but strikingly resembling, in features as well as habits, the best favoured English gypsies. They speak a pure dialect of Egyptian Arabic. Among the lower orders of the people, drafts is the common amusement, as chess is among the nobles. At both games they are very expert. They are dexterous spearmen. Denham saw one of their chiefs in battle with the Felatahs, throw eight spears which all told at the distance of 30 or 35 yards. The mode of building resembles that which is common among the Moors of Barbary. The apartments surround a square court. The walls are made of tempered mud or clay intermixed with stones, and plastered in the inside and outside with clay or mud mixed with sand. The roof, which is not durable, is formed of the branches of the palm-tree, interwoven with brush-wood; and the whole is white-washed with a species of chalk. The articles of furniture are mean, and few in number. In the houses are generally found mats covered with sheep-skins, for a bed; earthen pots and pans, several wooden dishes and bowls, a carpet, a lamp for oil, and sometimes a copper kettle. To these articles the higher ranks add handsome carpets, leathern cushions stuffed with wool, several utensils of copper and brass, with a kind of candlesticks in which they burn candles made of tallow and bees' wax. A musical box, which major Denham caused to play or stop by merely holding up his finger, occasioned the wildest exclamations of wonder and pleasure. Several rockets, which were exhibited, were no less the objects of admiration than of terror; and a gun, which was mounted on a carriage for the ruler of the country by Hillman, the European artificer who accompanied the expedition, was received with expressions of wonder and gratitude. The watches of the Europeans were examined with eager curiosity; also a sextant and other articles, and all burst out into exclamations of 'Wonderful! Wonderful!' at each new example of our superior progress in the mechanical arts. "The fashions of courts," says a lively reviewer, "are often little under the guidance either of nature or taste; nor has Europe in this respect always ground to reproach the rest of the world. But there is probably no court of which the taste is so absurd, grotesque, or preposterous, as that of Bornou. A huge belly is considered the primary requisite of a fine gentleman, or of one fit to wait on the sultan; and where feeding and cramming will not produce this elegant feature, the part is cushioned and stuffed out till it appears to possess the required dimension. The honour attached to this form must arise seemingly from its being considered as a type of abundance and luxury. Over this unwieldy bulk are then thrown ten or twelve successive robes of various and rich materials. The head, too, is covered with fold over fold, till there is seen only a small part of the face, which, according to the nicest taste, ought to appear entirely on one side. Over all are numberless charms enclosed in green leather cases, covering their clothes, horses and arms. In this attire these champions actually take the field; but the idea of such unwieldy hogsheads acting any part in battle, appeared to the mission utterly ridiculous. Indeed, the sultan, who ought to be more protuberant, and buried under a greater quantity of cloth than any of his chiefs, is subject to the convenient etiquette of never fighting. When his army is routed, and he cannot escape, he seats himself in state under a tree, and tranquilly awaits the stroke of the enemy."

Military Force.] The sheikh's force was composed of 30,000 cavalry and 9,000 Kanemboos' infantry, when Denham visited this country. In approaching Kouka, the capital of Bornou, major Denham and his party were totally ignorant of the character or condition of the people they were now to visit. They had heard different reports of the military force of the sovereign of Bornou; one said they were a few ragged Negroes armed with spears,—others that his forces were numerous and well-trained. They knew not what credit to attach to these different reports, and were in doubt whether they should find a chief at the head of thousands, or be received under a tree by a barbarian surrounded by a few naked slaves. The real state of the case is described in the following passage: "These doubts, however, were quickly removed. I had ridden on a short distance in front of Boo-Khaloom (an Arab merchant by whom the expedition was accompanied) with his train of Arabs all mounted and dressed out in their best apparel, and from the thickness of the trees soon lost sight of them. I rode still onwards, and, on approaching a spot less thickly planted, was not a little surprised to see in front of me a body of several thousand cavalry drawn up in line, and extending right and left quite as far as I could see; and, checking my horse, I awaited the arrival of my party, under the shade of a wide-spreading acacia. The Bornou troops remained quite steady, without noise or confusion: and a few horsemen, who were moving about in front giving directions, were the only persons out of the ranks. On the Arabs appearing in sight, a shout, or yell was given by the sheikh's people, which rent the air; a blast was blown from their rude instruments of music equally loud, and they moved on to meet Boo-Khaloom and his Arabs. There was an appearance of tact and management in their movements which astonished me; three separate small bodies, from the centre and each flank, kept charging rapidly towards us, to within a few feet of our horses' heads, without checking the speed of their own until the moment of their halt, while the whole body moved onwards. These parties were mounted on small but very perfect horses, who stopped and wheeled from their utmost speed with great precision and expertness, shaking their spears over their heads, exclaiming '*Barca! Barca! Alla niakkum cha, alla cheraga!*' 'Blessing, blessing, Sons of your country! Sons of your country!' and returning quickly to the front of the body, in order to repeat the charge. While all this was going on, they closed in their right and left flanks, and surrounded the little body of Arab warriors so completely, as to give the compliment of welcoming them very much the appearance of a declaration of a contempt for their weakness."

Language and Religion.] The languages spoken in Bornou, as has been already mentioned, are numerous.* The Arabic language is understood, and is used in conversation by the principal families. The Arabic characters are used in writing the language of Bornou. The Bornouese are strict Moslems, and less tolerant than the Arabs. "I have known a Bornouese," says major Denham, "refuse to eat with an Arab, because

* The following is a specimen of the language spoken in the capital, which may be considered as the proper language of the kingdom:—

One	<i>Lakka</i>	Eight	<i>Fallere</i>
Two	<i>Endec</i>	Nine	<i>L'illar</i>
Three	<i>Nieskoo</i>	Ten	<i>Meiko</i>
Four	<i>Dehoo</i>	Eleven	<i>Meiko Lakka</i>
Five	<i>Okoo</i>	Twelve	<i>Meiko Endec</i>
Six	<i>Araskoo</i>	Thirteen	<i>Miesko Nieskoo</i>
Seven	<i>Huskoo</i>	Fourteen	<i>Miesko Dehoo</i>

he had not performed *sully* (washed and prayed) at the preceding appointed hour. In the towns are many *hafis* who have performed the pilgrimage to Mecca, and who excel in writing the Arabic characters, as well as in teaching the art to others. However strange it may appear, each *hafis* leaving Bornou for Fessan, carries several copies of the Koran written by the Bornou *fighis*, which will sell in Barbary or Egypt for forty or fifty dollars each. The Arabic characters are also used by them to express their own language. Every chief has one of these *fighis* attached to him, who writes despatches from his dictation with great facility."

Commerce.] Instead of grain, as in Fessan, the medium of exchange, with regard to smaller articles, in Bornou, is a kind of metal which seems to be a mixture of copper and brass, and is formed into pieces of different weights. The principal articles with which Bornou furnishes those who trade to it are, gold-dust, slaves, horses, ostrich-feathers, salt and civet. We are not informed whether the gold-dust be a native product, or be procured by trading with other nations. The slaves are procured chiefly from Beghermi and the other tributary districts to the south of Bornou, where a regular system of slave-hunting has long been carried on. The inhabitants of these districts make yearly incursions into the neighbouring negro countries, and carry away as slaves, as many of the inhabitants as they can make prisoners. Towards their own justification they argue, that the negroes are cannibals: so great a resemblance has African injustice to that of Europe. The excuses are equally justifiable, and in both cases equally true. The civet is obtained from a species of cat. The animal is irritated till it perspire copiously, and then the moisture is carefully scraped from the hair. This operation is renewed at short intervals, till the animal expires, which usually happens in twelve or fourteen days. One cat generally yields half an ounce of civet. The inhabitants of Bornou form the iron afforded by their country into such slight tools as their work requires. Of their hemp, they make a kind of coarse linen, and of cotton, a kind of cloth which is dyed blue, and highly valued. They make carpets for coverings to their horses, and coverings for tents, of wool, and the hair of camels and goats. None of these manufactures are so extensive as to allow exportation. In return for the articles exported, they receive copper, brass, and dollars from Tripoli, by the way of Fessan, and woollen caps, check linens, light coarse woollen cloths, baize, baracane, small Turkey carpets, and plain Meaurata carpets, silk wrought and unwrought, tissues and brocades, sabra-blades, knives, scissors, coral beads, small looking-glasses, &c.

Towns.] The towns of Bornou are in general large and well-built, surrounded with walls from 35 to 40 feet in height and 20 feet thick. The principal besides Kouka are—*Birnie*, the residence of the sultan,—*Old Birnie*, the ancient capital, which is said to have had once a population of 200,000 souls,—and *Angernou*, 16 miles from Kouka, with 80,000 inhabitants.

MANDARA.] To the S. of Bornou is the country of Mandara, the sultan of which resides at Mora, 6 days' march, or 180 miles from Kouka. Major Denham on his route to this district from Kouka, passed through a large town called *Deegoa*, with a population of 30,000 souls, and another populous town called *Affugay*. The neighbouring towns were *Sagama*, *Kindacha*, *Masserem*, and *Kingoa*. The northernmost point of the Mandara hills commence near the town of *Deloro*, and extend in apparently interminable ridges E. S. E., S. W., and W. Those nearest the

eye apparently did not exceed 2500 feet; but the peaks in the distance seemed to be several thousand feet higher. Iron is found in abundance in all the Mandara hills. All the houses, or huts, at Mandara have outer doors to the court, which are made of pieces of wood, hasped together with iron. They make hinges, small bars, and a sort of hoe, used to weed the corn, and send them for sale to the Bornou towns. The iron they use is mostly brought from the west, near Parowha. The principal Mandara towns, eight in number, all stand in a valley; their inhabitants profess Islamism. The people of Mandara are an intelligent and lively race, with features altogether less flattened than the Bornouese. Mandara was formerly comprised within the territory of the sultan of *Korowa*, a country bordering upon it to the S. W.—To the S. E. of Mandara is a country called *Musgoro*;* the Shouaas border on the N. and N. E. frontiers. Major Denham met with a native who said that he had been 20 days S. of Mandara, to a country called *Adamowa*, which he described as being situated in the centre of a plain surrounded with mountains ten times as high as the Mandara chain. He passed several extensive lakes in the journey; and before arriving at Adamowa, crossed a river flowing from the W. between two very high ridges.

KINGDOM OF LOGGUN.] Dr Oudney's mission had heard much of a great river, the *Shary*, falling from the south into the Tchad; and, after some difficulties, they succeeded in obtaining permission to visit it and the kingdom of Loggun, situated on its banks. They were surprised at the magnitude of the stream, which they found near its junction, about half a mile broad, and running at the rate of between two and three miles an hour. They traced it upwards about forty miles, and saw it flowing, 'in great beauty and majesty, past the high walls of the capital of Loggun.' This country, now seen and heard of for the first time by Europeans, presented some features superior to any yet seen in Africa. Amid the furious warfare of the surrounding states, the Loggunese have steadily cultivated peace, which, by a skilful neutrality, they have been able to maintain. They are industrious, and work steadily at the loom, which is considered here as an occupation not degrading to freemen. The cloth, after being thrice steeped in a dye composed of their incomparable indigo, is laid on the trunk of a large tree, and beaten with wooden mallets, till it acquires the most brilliant gloss. They have a metallic currency, only indeed of iron; but none of their neighbours have any thing of the kind. They are described as a remarkably handsome and healthy race; the females, in particular, far more intelligent, and possessing a superior carriage and manner to those of any neighbouring nation. We are concerned to add, that, though much superior in these respects to the Bornou females, they fall below them in those virtues, which form the chief ornament of their sex. In particular, we find them charged with a total absence of common honesty. 'They examined every thing, even to the pockets of my trowsers; and more inquisitive ladies I never saw in any country. They begged for every thing, and nearly all attempted to steal something. When found out, they only laughed heartily, clapped their hands together, and exclaimed—Why, how sharp he is! Only think! Why, he caught us.'—Loggun is very abundant in provisions of all kinds, the cattle being chiefly furnished by Shouaas, who inhabit in great numbers about the lake. Unhappily, it swarms with another species of life: 'Flies, bees, and mosquitoes, with immense black toads, vie with each other in their peace-destroying powers.' The inhabitants dare not stir out for two or three hours in

the day, without the hazard of their bites producing serious illness ; children have been known to be killed by them. The only resource is, to make a fire of wet straw, and sit involved in the thick smoke it produces—if the remedy is not thought worse than the evil.

CHAP. IV.—THE FELLATAH KINGDOM.

TERRITORY OF THE BEDEES.] Dr Oudney obtained permission to make an excursion westward from Bornou into Soodan. Their way at first lay partly along the banks of the Yeou, which were here found well cultivated, and crowded with towns and villages. Beyond the Bornou frontier, the route led along the territories of the *Bedees*, a rude people, who, protected by natural fastnesses, hold themselves still independent, and retain their Pagan rites, on which ground it is considered the first duty of all the neighbouring nations to enslave or kill them. It cannot be wondered at that the Bedees should do in like manner towards them : and hence this tract becomes extremely dangerous, especially as the caravans have a habit of considering all they meet as Bedees. The party experienced one day an extreme and remarkable cold. The water was covered with thin flakes of ice, and the leathern water-skins were frozen as hard as a board.

FELLATAH TERRITORY.] On entering the territory now included in the empire of the Fellatahs, the travellers found themselves at once in the midst of superior cultivation, and a superior people. The fields were covered with large crops of wheat, two of which were annually produced by irrigation, and the grain stored in large granaries raised on poles as a security from the insects. As this, however, was a conquered country, the ravages of Fellatah warfare were visible, and whole quarters were seen in the towns, from which all the inhabitants had been carried into slavery. *Katagum*, a district which can muster 20,000 foot and 4000 horse, had been recently wrested from Bornou, and formed now the most westerly Fellatah province. The Yeou was now seen in a new direction, coming from the south, out of a country said to be mountainous, and inhabited by rude tribes.

History.] Clapperton informs us that the founder of Soccato, the sheikh Othman Danfodio, came originally from the woods of Ader or Tadelah ; and, having settled in Ghoober, built a town, where the Fellatahs soon began to gather round him. Driven from Ghoober, he retired to Ader, where he built himself a town ; but the Fellatahs continuing to flock to him, he ventured to attack the heathen tribes of Soodan, and soon conquered Kano, and overran Ghoober. After this the whole of Houssa, with Cubbe, Youri, and part of Nyffee, fell under his dominion. No sooner had the Fellatahs fairly established themselves, than Arabs, from both the E. and W. came to congratulate Danfodio on his newly acquired territory ; and numbers of Fellatahs from the W. came to settle in Houssa. These the sheikh located principally in Zegzeg. “ The Fellatahs or Foulahs,” continues Clapperton, “ before he gathered them under his government, did not live in towns, but were scattered over the greater part of Soudan, attending to their herds and flocks, living in temporary huts, generally in the midst of unfrequented woods, and seldom visiting the towns. This business they left to the women, who attended the markets, and sold the produce of their cattle. The men were reported to live a religious and harmless life, spending a great part of their time in reading the Koran

and other religious books. Now and then, a few of their learned men would come forth, and engage themselves for a few years with the Mahometan sultans and governors, until they had collected a little money, with which they purchased a few cattle, and then returned to the woods to their countrymen, who moved about from one province to another, according to the seasons, and the nature and quantity of pasture and water; contented with building temporary huts of straw and rushes, and to be left in peace. No one indeed thought of disturbing them, or of interfering with their pursuits, they being probably considered as too contemptible and insignificant to excite any fear. Thus dispersed, no one but themselves knew or could guess at their numbers. Melli, or the petty kingdoms of Fouta-Torra, Fouta-Bondoo, and Fouta-Jallo, were the places whence they spread themselves eastward, until they became very considerable, in point of numbers, in all the countries between the above-mentioned places and Waday. Many of them had performed their pilgrimage to Mecca, and others had visited the empires of Turkey and Morocco, as also Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, bringing back with them all the Arabic books they were able to beg or buy." In 1816 the old sheikh died, when his son Mohammed Bello succeeded to the government of Housea; but the conquered territories to the westward were given to his nephew Mohammed Ben Abdallah. The death of Danfodio was the signal for the conquered provinces to revolt; but the sultan Bello has retaken the greater part of Ghoobar and Nyffee; and Zamfra, Youri, and Cubbe have in part submitted, on condition of being ruled by their native chiefs.

The Fellatahs.] The Fellatahs are so named by the Negroes, but they themselves use the term *Fellan*, or more exactly *Faulan*; but as this nation carries away Negroes for the purposes of slavery, *Fellatah* appears to be a term of reproach, like that of *Serdus* by which the Negroes designate the Tuaricks. At Senegal, and on the borders of the Gambia, they are called *Fulah* and *Puhle*. Mungo Park designates them under the first of these names, and Mollier under the second. Mr Hodgson contends that the Fellatahs are not of Arabian nor of Berber origin, but that they have descended from the elevated plateau where the Niger takes its origin. As the Fellatahs neighbour on Abyssinia, it is probable that they have some relation with the *Fallaschas* of that country. Bruce says that the latter are Jews, and speak the ancient Ethiopian language, but this language is very little known. An examination of the language of Tibboo, Bournou, Haoussa, and Timbuctoo, proves that they have no declensions either for the genders or for the plural number. Perhaps even their verbs are not conjugated. If we compared the language of the Tuaricks who inhabit the N., and that of the Fellatahs to the S., with the simple and uncultivated idiom of Soudan, perhaps we should find that there exists as much difference between the languages of Africa, as between the colours of its inhabitants, and that, like them, they may be divided into white and black. The manners of the Fellatahs are thus described by Clapperton:—"The dress of the men is a red cap with a blue tassel of silk, a white turban, part of which, or a fold, shades the brow and eyes; another fold is taken over the nose, which covers the mouth and chin, hanging down on the breast; a white shirt, close at the breast, and short in the skirt, a large white robe and white trousers, trimmed with red or green silk, and a pair of sandals or boots: this is the dress of the greater part of the wealthy inhabitants. When travelling, they wear, over the turban, a broad-brimmed straw hat, with a round, low crown. Some who do not

affect great sanctity or learning, wear check tobes and blue turbans over the forehead, with the end hanging down behind ; the poorer, a white check tobe, white cap and trowsers, and sandals. Some are content with the straw hat only ; but all wear a sword, which is carried over the left shoulder. The women have a cloth striped with blue, white, and red, falling as low as the ankles ; silver rings in the ears, about an inch and a half in diameter ; bracelets of horn, glass, brass, copper, or silver, according to the quality of the wearer ; round the neck, beads and strings of glass or coral ; round the ankles, brass, copper, or silver, and sometimes rings on the toes as well as fingers. The fashionable ornament is a Spanish dollar soldered fast to a ring. The poor women have pewter, brass, and copper rings. The hair is generally turned up like a crest on the top of the head, with something like a pig's tail hanging down from each extremity, a little before the ears.

" Some of the Fellatah women have the hair frizzed out at the ends, all round the head ; others have the hair plaited in four small plaits, going round the head like a riband or bandeau. This and all the plaited parts, are well smeared over with indigo or shumri. The razor is applied to smooth all uneven places, and to give a high and fine arch to the forehead ; they thin the eye-brows to a fine line, which, with the eye-lashes, are rubbed over with pounded lead ore : this is done by drawing a small pen that has been dipped in this ore. The teeth are then dyed with the goranut, and a root of a shining red colour ; the hands and feet, the toe and finger nails, are stained red with henna. A lady, thus equipped, is fit to appear in the best society. The looking-glass is a circular piece of metal, about an inch and a half in diameter, set in a small skin box, and is often applied to. The young girls of the better sort of people, dress much in the same manner as their mothers, after they arrive at the age of nine or ten : before that, they have very little dress, except the binta or apron, scolloped or vandyked round with red cloth, with two long, broad strings vandyked round in the same manner, hanging down as low as the heels behind. This is the dress of the poorer sort of people, until fit for marriage, as also of a great many of the virgin female slaves.

" Their marriages are celebrated without any pomp or noise. The bride, as far as I was informed, is always consulted by her parents, but a refusal on her part is unknown. The poorer class of people make up matters much in the same way ; that is, after having got the consent of one another, they ask their father and mother. The dowry given by a man of good condition with regard to riches, may be said to consist of young female slaves, carved and mounted calabashes or gourds, filled with millet, dourra, and rice, cloths for the loins, bracelets, and the equipage of her toilet, and one or two large wooden mortars for beating corn, &c. and stones for grinding, &c. : even these are carried in procession on the heads of her female slaves, when she first goes to her husband's house.

" They always bury their dead behind the house which the deceased occupied while living. The following day, all the friends and relations of the deceased visit the head of the family, and sit awhile with the bereaved party. If the husband dies, the widow returns to the house of her parents, with the property she brought with her.

" The domestic slaves are generally well treated. The males who have arrived at the age of eighteen or nineteen, are given a wife, and sent to live at their villages and farms in the country, where they build a hut, and, until the harvest, are fed by their owners. When the time for cultivating

the ground and sowing the seed comes on, the owner points out what he requires, and what is to be sown on it. The slave is then allowed to inclose a part for himself and family. The hours of labour, for his master, are from daylight till mid-day; the remainder of the day is employed on his own, or in any other way he may think proper. At the time of harvest, when they cut and tie up the grain, each slave gets a bundle of the different sorts of grain, about a bushel of our measure, for himself. The grain on his own ground, is entirely left for his own use, and he may dispose of it as he thinks proper. At the vacant seasons of the year, he must attend to the calls of his master, whether to accompany him on a journey, or to go to war if so ordered.

"The children of a slave are also slaves, and when able, are usually sent out to attend the goats and sheep, and at a more advanced age, the bullocks and larger cattle; they are soon afterwards taken home to the master's house, to look after his horse or his domestic concerns, as long as they remain single. The domestic slaves are fed the same as the rest of the family, with whom they appear to be on an equality of footing. The children of slaves, whether dwelling in the house or on the farm, are never sold, unless their behaviour is such, that after repeated punishment, they continue unmanageable, so that the master is compelled to part with them. The slaves that are sold, are those taken from the enemy, or newly purchased, who on trial do not suit the purchaser. When a male or female slave dies unmarried, his property goes to the owner. The children of the slaves are sometimes educated with those of the owner; but this is not generally the case.

"The male and female children of the better sort of the *Fellatahs*, are all taught to write and read Arabic, but are instructed separately. The male children of the great are generally sent to another town, at some distance from that where their parents reside, to receive their education; in which case they usually reside in the house of a friend, and a malle, or man of learning, attends them. Those of the middle and lower classes generally send their children to the schools, which they attend for an hour at day-break, and another at sunset, reading their Arabic lessons aloud and simultaneously. They are required to get their lessons by heart before the writing is washed off the board on which it is written. The ink thus diluted is drunk by the scholars, when their master writes a new lesson on the board.

"These Africans keep up the appearance of religion: they pray five times a day. They seldom take the trouble to wash before prayers, except in the morning; but they go through the motions of washing, clapping their hands on the ground as if in water, and muttering a prayer. All their prayers and religious expressions are in Arabic; and I may say, without exaggeration, talking Negroes and *Fellatahs* together, that not one in a thousand knows what he is saying. All they know of their religion is, to repeat their prayers by rote in Arabic. Of the *Fellatahs*, about one in ten is able to read and write. They believe, they say, in predestination, but it is all a farce. They believe, however, in divination by the book, in dreams, and in good and bad omens.

"The government of the *Fellatahs* in Soodan, is in its infancy. The governors of the different provinces are appointed during pleasure; and all their property, on their death or removal, falls to the sultan. The appointment to a vacancy is sold to the highest bidder, who is generally a near relation, provided that his property is sufficient to enable him to bid

up to the mark. All the inferior offices in the towns are sold in like manner by the governors, who also succeed to the property of those petty officers at their death or removal. In the province of Kano, they have no regular system of taxation. A great deal of marketable property is claimed by the governor, such as two-thirds of the produce of all the date-trees and other fruit-trees, the proprietor being allowed only the remaining third. A small duty is also levied on every article sold in the market; or, in lieu thereof, a certain rent is paid for the stall or shed. A duty is also fixed on every *lobe* that is dyed blue, and sold. On grain, there is no duty. Kano produces the greatest revenue that the sultan receives: it is paid monthly, in horses, cloth, and cowries. Adamowa pays yearly in slaves; Yacoba, in slaves and lead-ore; Zegzeg, in slaves and cowries; Zamfra, the same; Hadiga and Katagum, and Zaonima, in horses, bullocks, and slaves; Cashna, in slaves, cowries, and cloth; Ader, or Tadel, in bullocks, sheep, camels, and a coarse kind of cotton cloth, like what is called by us a counterpane."

ZEGZEG.] Both Cashna and Kano were at one time tributary to the sovereign of Zegzeg. This district is bounded on the W. and N. by Gari and Cashna; on the E. by Kano; on the S. E. by Yacoba; on the S. by a mountainous unknown tract, called *Bowshir*, which is said to extend to the ocean; and on the S. W. by Nyfee. The country in the vicinity of Zaria, the capital, is clear of wood, and all either in pasture or under cultivation.

KANO, &c.] Kano, or *Gana*, is a highly cultivated and populous country. Its capital is situated in N. lat. $11^{\circ} 34'$, and E. long. $9^{\circ} 13'$. It may contain from 30,000 to 40,000 inhabitants, of whom a great proportion are slaves. It is famed over all Central Africa for dyeing of cloth. The Negroes here are excessively polite and ceremonious. This district is separated from Cashna by a large stream which flows towards the W. and washes the city of Sockatoo.—The district of *Katagum* is subordinate to Kano.—Not far to the southward is the country of *Yacoba*, called by the Mahomedans *Boushy*, or 'the country of infidels.' The *Yeou* takes its rise here, and, after passing Katagum, turns eastward and falls into the Tchad. The *Girkwa* and *Sockna* join the Yeou to the N. of Katagum.

CASHNA.] The principal city of this country is situated in N. lat. $12^{\circ} 59'$. Its fairs are attended by merchants from Ghadamis and Tuat, and by many Tuaricks. The principal articles are slaves and salt; and it forms a commercial entrepot between Egypt and Fezzan, and Southern Nigritia.

CITY OF SOCCATOO.] This city, the present capital of the Fellatah dominions, is situated in N. lat. $13^{\circ} 4' 52''$, and E. long. $6^{\circ} 12'$. It stands on the top of a low hill, near the junction of an inconsiderable stream with the Zirmie river, which crossing the district of Cubbé in a S. W. direction, at the distance of four days' journey, enters the Quorra. The name signifies a halting place, the city having been built by the Fellatahs, after their conquest of Ghoober and Zamfra, about the year 1805. "It occupies," says captain Clapperton, "a long ridge which slopes gently towards the north, and appeared to me the most populous town I had visited in the interior of Africa; for, unlike most other towns in Houssa, where the houses are thinly scattered, it is laid out in regular well-built streets. The houses approach close to the walls, which were built by the present sultan in 1818, after the death of his father; the old walls being too confined for the increasing population. This wall is between twenty

and thirty feet high, and has twelve gates, which are regularly closed at sunset. There are two large mosques, including the new one at present building by the Gadado, besides several other places for prayer. There is a spacious market-place in the centre of the city, and another large square in front of the sultan's residence. The dwellings of the principal people are surrounded with high walls, which enclose numerous coozes and flat-roofed houses, built in the Moorish style; whose large water-spouts of baked clay, projecting from the eaves, resemble at first sight a tier of guns. The inhabitants are principally Fellatahs, possessing numerous slaves. Such of the latter as are not employed in domestic duties, reside in houses by themselves, where they follow various trades; the master, of course, reaping the profit. Their usual employments are weaving, house-building, shoe-making, and iron-work: many bring fire-wood to the market for sale. Those employed in raising grain and tending cattle, of which the Fellatahs have immense herds, reside in villages without the city. It is customary for private individuals to free a number of slaves every year, according to their means, during the great feast after the Rhamadan. The enfranchised seldom return to their native country, but continue to reside near their old masters, still acknowledging them as their superiors, and presenting them yearly with a portion of their earnings. The trade of Soccatoo is at present inconsiderable, owing to the disturbed state of the surrounding country. The necessaries of life are very cheap: butchers' meat is in great plenty, and very good. The exports are principally civet and blue check tobies, called *sharie*, which are manufactured by the slaves from Nyffee, of whom the men are considered as the most expert weavers in Soodan, and the women as the best spinners. The common imports are brought from the borders of Ashantee; and coarse calico and woollen cloth, in small quantities, with brass and pewter dishes, and some few spices, from Nyffee. The Arabs, from Tripoli and Ghadamia, bring unwrought silk, star of roses, spices, and beads. Slaves are both exported and imported. A great quantity of Guinea corn is taken every year by the Tuaricks in exchange for salt. The market is extremely well supplied, and is held daily from sunrise to sunset. On the north side of Soccatoo there is a low marsh, with some stagnant pools of water, between the city and the river; this, perhaps, may be the cause of the great prevalence of ague, as the city stands in a fine airy situation."

CHAP. V.—TIMBUCTOO.

THE first European traveller who succeeded in penetrating to this mysterious city, was major Laing, who reached it in 1826, but was barbarously murdered on his return homewards. An enterprising Frenchman, M. Caillié, has been more fortunate. Setting out on the 19th of April, 1827, from Kakondy, the tomb of major Peddie and major Campbell, he crossed the Senegal at Bafila, and after passing the lake *Debo*, (the Debbie of former writers,) he arrived at Cabra on the Joliba, and disembarked at a point 13 miles distant from Timbuctoo, which he says lies to the south of the river. Of the city itself Caillié affirms that it presents at first sight nothing but a mass of ill-looking houses, built of earth; that it is surrounded on all sides by immense plains of a yellowish white sand, where not even the warbling of a bird could be heard, and that he thinks 'the river formerly flowed close to Timbuctoo, though now it is 8 miles to the

N. of that city. Adams, the American sailor, who was shipwrecked in 1810, on the western coast of Africa, and carried to Timbuctoo as a slave, mentions a large river, about three-fourths of a mile wide, called *La Mar Zarrak*, as flowing close to that city from the N. E. Leo Africanus states that the branch-river of Timbuctoo flows to the W. and joins the Niger at Cabra. Sidi Hamet says that the river which runs by Timbuctoo is a small one, which occasionally dries up, so that the natives are then obliged to go two hours to the southward, where there is a large river called *Zolibil*. Sidi Hamet likewise describes a much larger city, called *Wassanah*, on the Niger, 60 days to the S. of Timbuctoo. "At Timbuctoo," says Caillié, "the nights are as hot as the days, and I could get no rest in the chamber which had been prepared for me. I removed to the court adjoining the house, but still found it impossible to sleep. The heat was oppressive; not a breath of air freshened the atmosphere. In the whole course of my travels I never found myself more uncomfortable. On the morning of the 21st of April I went to pay my respects to my host, who received me with affability; afterwards I took a turn round the city. I found it neither so large nor so populous as I had expected. Its commerce is not so considerable as fame has reported. There was not, as at Jenné, a concourse of strangers from all parts of the Soodan. I saw in the streets of Timbuctoo only the camels which had arrived from Cabra laden with the merchandise of the flotilla, a few groups of the inhabitants sitting on mats, conversing together, and Moors lying asleep in the shade before their doors. In a word, every thing had a dull appearance. I was surprised at the inactivity, I may even say indolence, displayed in the city. Some colat-nut venders were crying their goods in the streets as at Jenné. About four in the afternoon, when the heat had diminished, I saw several negro traders, all well-clothed, and mounted on good horses, richly harnessed, go out to ride. Prudence forbids them to venture far from the city, for fear of the Tooariks, who would make them pay dearly for their excursions. In consequence of the oppressive heat, the market is not held until three in the afternoon. There were few strangers to be seen except the Moors of the neighbouring tribe of Zawât, who often come hither; but in comparison with Jenné, the market is a desert. At Timbuctoo it is very unusual to see any other merchandise except what is brought by the vessels, and a few articles from Europe, such as glass wares, amber, coral, sulphur, paper, &c. I saw three shops kept in small rooms, well-stored with stuffs of European manufacture. The merchants put out at their doors cakes of salt for sale, but they never exhibit them in the market. Such as do business at the market have stalls made of stakes, covered with mats, to protect them against the heat of the sun. My host, Sidi-Abdallahi, was obliging enough to show me over one of his magazines, in which he stowed his European merchandise. I observed there many double-barrelled guns, with the mark of Saint Etienne, and other manufactories. In general French muskets are much prized, and sell at a higher rate than those of other nations. I also saw some beautiful elephants' teeth. My host told me that he procured some from Jenné, but the larger ones had been bought at Timbuctoo. They are brought hither by the Tooariks or Soorgooe, the Kisoors, and the Dirimans, who inhabit the banks of the river. They do not hunt the elephant with fire-arms, but catch it in snares. I regret having never seen one of these animals caught.

"The city of Timbuctoo is principally inhabited by negroes of the Kisoor nation. Many Moors also reside there. They are engaged in

trade, and, like Europeans, who repair to the colonies in the hope of making their fortunes, they usually return to their own country to enjoy the fruits of their industry. They have considerable influence over the native inhabitants of Timbuctoo, whose king or governor is a negro. This prince, who is named Osman, is much respected by his subjects. He is very simple in his manners: his dress is like that of the Moors of Morocco; and his house is no better furnished than those of the Moorish merchants. He is himself a merchant, and his sons trade with Jenné. He inherited a considerable fortune from his ancestors, and is very rich. He has four wives, besides an infinite number of slaves, and is a zealous Mahomedan. The sovereignty is hereditary, descending to the eldest son. The king does not levy any tribute on his subjects, or on foreign merchants, but he receives presents. There is no regular government. The king is like a father ruling his children. He is mild and just, and has nothing to fear from his subjects. The whole community, indeed, exhibits the amiable and simple manners of the patriarchs. In case of war, all are ready to serve; but the mild and inoffensive manners of these people afford little ground for quarrels, and when they arise, the natives of Timbuctoo repair to their chief, who assembles a council of the elders, all of whom are blacks. Though the Moors are not permitted to take part in these councils, yet my host, Sidi-Abdallahi, the friend of Osman, was sometimes allowed to be present at them. The Moors acknowledge a superior among themselves; but they are, nevertheless, amenable to the authorities of the country. I requested my host to present me to the king, which, with his usual good-nature, he consented to do. The prince received me in the midst of his court. He was seated on a beautiful mat, with a rich cushion. We seated ourselves for a few moments at a little distance from him. Sidi-Abdallahi, after briefly relating my adventures, told him that I wished to pay my respects to him. I could not understand their conversation, for they spoke in the language of the Kissours. The king afterwards addressed me in Arabic, asking some questions about the Christians, and the manner in which they had treated me. After a short time we took our leave: I wished to have seen the interior of the house, but my curiosity could not be gratified. The king appeared to be of an exceedingly amiable disposition; his age might be about fifty-five, and his hair was white and curly. He was of the middling height, and his colour was jet black. He had an aquiline nose, thin lips, a grey beard, and large eyes, and his whole countenance was pleasing; his dress, like those of the Moors, was composed of stuff of European manufacture. On his head was a red cap, bound round with a large piece of muslin, in the form of a turban. His shoes were of morocco, shaped like our morning slippers, and made in the country. He often visited the mosque. There are, as I have already mentioned, many Moors in Timbuctoo, and they occupy the finest houses in the city. They very soon become rich in trade, and they receive consignments of merchandise from Adrar, Taflet, Tawât, Ardamas, Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers. They receive from Europe, tobacco and other articles, which they send by canoes to Jenné and elsewhere. Timbuctoo may be regarded as the principal *entrepôt* of this part of Africa. All the salt obtained from the mines of Toudenyi is brought hither on camels. The Moors of Morocco and other countries who travel to the Soodan, remain six or eight months at Timbuctoo to sell their goods and get their camels re-laden. The cakes of salt are tied together with cords, made of a sort of grass which grows in the neighbourhood of Tandyé. This grass is dry when

gathered ; but is afterwards moistened, and then buried under ground to keep it from the sun and the east wind, which would dry it too rapidly. When sufficiently impregnated with moisture, it is taken out of the earth and platted into cord, which the Moors use for various purposes. The camels frequently throw their loads off their backs ; and when the cakes of salt arrive in the town they are frequently broken. This would spoil their sale, if the merchants did not take the precaution of making the slaves join them together again. When the pieces are fastened together, the cakes are packed up again with a stronger kind of cord, made of bull's hide. The cakes are ornamented with little designs, such as stripes, lozenges, &c. traced in black. The slaves are very fond of executing these ornaments,—an employment which enables them to collect a little supply of salt for their own use. In general the slaves are better treated at Timbuctoo than in other countries. They are well-clothed and fed, and seldom beaten. They are required to observe religious duties, which they do very punctually ; but they are, nevertheless, regarded as merchandise, and are exported to Tripoli, Morocco, and other parts of the coast, where they are not so happy as at Timbuctoo. They always leave that place with regret ; though they are ignorant of the fate that awaits them elsewhere. At the time of my departure I saw several slaves affectionately bidding each other adieu. The conformity of their melancholy condition excites among them a feeling of sympathy and mutual interest. At parting they recommended good behaviour to each other ; but the Moors frequently hurry their departure, and interrupt these affecting scenes, which are so well calculated to excite commiseration for their fate. When I was at the mosque, a middle-aged Moor stepped up to me gravely, and, without saying a word, slipped a handful of cowries into the pocket of my coussabe. He withdrew immediately, without affording me time to thank him. I was much surprised at this delicate way of giving alms.

“ The city of Timbuctoo forms a sort of triangle, measuring about three miles in circuit. The houses are large, but not high, consisting entirely of a ground floor. In some a sort of little closet is constructed above the entrance. They are built of bricks of a round form, rolled in the hands, and baked in the sun. The walls, except as far as regards their height, resemble those of Jenné. The streets of Timbuctoo are clean, and sufficiently wide to permit three horsemen to pass abreast. Both within and without the town there are many straw huts of a circular form, like those of the pastoral Foulahs. They serve as dwellings for the poor, and for the slaves who sell merchandise for their masters. Timbuctoo contains seven mosques, two of which are large ; each is surmounted by a brick tower. This mysterious city, which has been an object of curiosity for so many ages, and of whose population, civilization, and trade with the Soodan, such exaggerated notions have prevailed, is situated in an immense plain of white sand, having no vegetation but stunted trees and shrubs, such as the *mimosa ferruginea*, which grows no higher than three or four feet. The city is not closed by any barrier, and may be entered on any side. Within the town are seen some of the *balanitis Egyptiaca*, and in the centre is a palm-tree. Timbuctoo may contain at most about 10,000 or 12,000 inhabitants ; all are engaged in trade. The population is at times augmented by the Arabs, who come with the caravans, and remain awhile in the city. In the plain, several species of grass and thistles afford food for the camels. Fire-wood is very scarce, being all brought from the neighbourhood of Cabra. It is an article of trade, and the women sell it

in the market-place. It is only burnt by the rich; the poor use camel-dung for fuel. Water is also sold in the market-place; the women give a measure containing about half a pint for a cowrie.

"Timbuctoo, though one of the largest cities I have seen in Africa, possesses no other resources but its trade in salt, the soil being totally unfit for cultivation. The inhabitants procure from Jenné every thing requisite for the supply of their wants, such as millet, rice, vegetable butter, honey, cotton, Soodan cloth, preserved provisions, candles, soap, allspice, onions, dried fish, pistachios, &c. If the vessels from Cabra should chance to be stopped by the Tooarika, the inhabitants of Timbuctoo would be reduced to famine. To obviate this misfortune, they take care to have their warehouses always amply stored with every kind of provision. I saw the magazines of Sidi-Abdallahi full of great sacks of rice, which keeps better than millet. For these reasons the vessels which come down the river to Cabra are deterred from making any resistance to the Tooarika, notwithstanding the burden of their exactions. I was assured that, if the crews dared but to strike one of these savages, they would forthwith declare war against Timbuctoo, and intercept all communication with the port; the city could then receive no supplies. To the W.S.W. of the town there are large excavations, from 35 to 40 feet deep; these are reservoirs, which are supplied by the rains. Hither the slaves resort to procure the water for drink and cooking. This water is tolerably clear, but it has a disagreeable taste, and is very hot. These reservoirs have no covering whatever; the water is consequently exposed to the influence of the sun and the hot wind. The excavations are dug in loose sand. I descended into the largest of them by a gentle declivity: the bottom was not quite covered with water. I remarked some veins of hard red sand; with this exception the soil was gray sand, of a coarsish grain. Near the reservoirs are some small plantations of tobacco. This plant grows here no higher than five or six inches, and that only by dint of watering. It is the only cultivated vegetable that I observed in this country. Some Negroes were engaged in gathering it; and I remarked that it had already run to seed. They dry the leaves and pound them in a mortar, and then take the powder without any further preparation. It is merely a green powder, and has not even the smell of tobacco. They bring it to market; but the richer class of people prefer that which comes from Morocco, which is of a far better quality. The inhabitants of Timbuctoo do not smoke; but the wandering Moors who dwell in the neighbourhood of the city use pipes. The slaves draw the water from the reservoirs in calabashes, with which they fill leathern bags, which are carried by asses. Before they proceed to work they amuse themselves with a short dance; for, in spite of their hard lot, they are constantly full of gaiety. On their return home, they pour the water into jars, where it cools and loses somewhat of its disagreeable taste. I saw some female slaves washing in large calabashes beside the reservoirs. Sidi-Abdallahi informed me that there was no traffic or communication by water between Timbuctoo and the country of Houssa; because, said he, the navigation of the river ceases at Cabra. The negroes and Moors devote their attention exclusively to trade: they possess but limited ideas of geography. All to whom I applied for information respecting the course of the river to the E. and E.S.E. of Timbuctoo, agreed in stating that it runs to Houssa, and empties itself into the Nile. I was unable to obtain any more accurate information on this point; and the great problem of the issue of the Dhioliba into the ocean will thus be left to the demonstration of

some more fortunate traveller; but if I may be permitted to hazard an opinion as to the course of the river, I should say that it probably empties itself by several mouths into the Gulf of Benin."

Natives and Tuariks.] "The native inhabitants of Timbuctoo are zealous Mahometans; their dress is similar to that of the Moors. Like the Arabs, they are allowed to have four wives each. The women attend to domestic occupations, and they are not, like the Mandingo females, subject to the punishment of beating. The people of Timbuctoo, who are in constant communication with the half-civilized inhabitants of the Mediterranean, have some idea of the dignity of human nature. I have constantly observed in my travels, that in proportion as a people was uncivilized, the women were always more enslaved. The female sex in Africa have reason to pray for the progress of cultivation. The women of Timbuctoo are not veiled like those of Morocco; they are allowed to go out when they please, and are at liberty to see any one. The people are gentle and complaisant to strangers. In trade they are industrious and intelligent; and the traders are, generally, wealthy, and have many slaves. The men are of the ordinary size, well-made, upright, and walk with a firm step. Their colour is a fine deep black. Their noses are a little more aquiline than those of the Mandingoes, and, like them, they have thin lips and large eyes. I saw some women who might be considered pretty. They are all well-fed: their meals, of which they take two a day, consist of rice, and coccoosoo made of small millet, dressed with meat or dried fish. Those negroes who are in easy circumstances, like the Moors, breakfast on wheaten bread, tea, and butter made from cows' milk. Those of inferior condition use vegetable butter. Generally speaking, the negroes are not so well-lodged as the Moors. The latter have great influence over them, and, indeed, consider themselves far their superiors. The inhabitants of Timbuctoo are exceedingly neat in their dress and in the interior of their dwellings. Their domestic articles consist of calabashes and wooden platters. They are unacquainted with the use of knives and forks; and they believe that, like them, all people in the world eat with their fingers. Their furniture merely consists of mats for sitting on; and their beds are made by fixing four stakes in the ground at one end of the room, and stretching over them some mats or a cow-hide. The rich have cotton mattresses and coverlets, which the neighbouring Moors manufacture from camels' hair, and sheep's wool. I saw a woman of Cabra employed in spinning these coverlets. The natives of Timbuctoo, as I before observed, have several wives, and to these many add their slaves. The Moors, indeed, cohabit only with their slaves; and these females are employed in vending merchandize in the streets, such as colats, allspice, &c. Some, also, have a little stall in the market-place, while the favourite stays at home, superintending those whose business it is to cook for the household: the favourite herself prepares the husband's meals. These women are very neatly dressed: their costume consists of a *cousabe*, like that worn by the men, except that it has not large sleeves. Their shoes are of morocco. The fashion of the head-dress sometimes varies; it principally consists of a *fatara* of fine muslin, or some other cotton stuff of European manufacture. Their hair is beautifully platted. The principal tress, which is about an inch thick, comes from the back to the front of the head, and is terminated by a piece of a cornelian, of a round form and concave in the centre: they put a little cushion under the tress to support it, and add to that ornament several other trinkets, made of imitation of amber or coral, and bits of cornelian,

cut like that just mentioned. They also anoint the head and the whole body with butter, but less profusely than the Bambaras and Mandingoes. The great heat, which is augmented by the scorching east wind, renders this custom necessary. The women of the richer class have always a great number of glass beads about their necks and in their ears. Like the women of Jenne, they wear nose-rings; and the female who is not rich enough to procure a ring substitutes a bit of red silk for it: they wear silver bracelets, and ankle-rings of plated steel, the latter of which are made in the country; instead of being round, like the bracelets, they are flat, and about four inches broad. Some pretty designs are engraved on them. The female slaves of rich masters have gold ornaments about their necks; instead of wearing ear-rings, as in the environs of the Senegal, they have little plates in the form of a necklace. A few days after my arrival at Timbuctoo, I fell in with a Negro who was parading about the streets two women, whom I recollected to have been fellow-passengers with me on board the canoe. These women were not young, but their master, to give them the appearance of an age better suited to the market, had dressed them well. They wore fine white pagnes, large gold ear-rings, and each had two or three necklaces of the same metal. When I passed them, they looked at me, and smiled. They did not appear in the least mortified at being exhibited in the streets for sale, but manifested an indifference which I could easily enough account for, by the state of degradation to which they had been reduced, and their total ignorance of the natural rights of mankind. They thought that things should be so, and that they had come into this world to be bought and sold.

"The trade of Timbuctoo is considerably cramped by the Tooariks, a warlike nation, who render the inhabitants of the town their tributaries. The latter, for the privilege of carrying on their trade, give them what they demand, independently of the duties levied on the flotillas at Cabra. A refusal to satisfy them would be attended with serious consequences; for the Tooariks are very numerous, and sufficiently strong to cut off all communication between Cabra and Timbuctoo, when the city and its neighbourhood, having within themselves no agricultural resources, would be reduced to famine. The Moore entertain a profound contempt for the Tooariks; and when they would express their utmost hatred of them, they compare them to the Christians, whom they suppose to be the same kind of vagabonds and depredators. I endeavoured to refute this error, which received implicit credit here. I assured them that the Europeans were not to be compared to those marauders; that, instead of robbing, they were always ready to assist and succour their fellow-creatures. 'But if the Christians are so very good,' they said, 'why did you not stay among them?' This question embarrassed me a little; but I replied that God had ordained it otherwise, and had inspired me with the idea of returning to my country, to resume the religion of my fathers. The house of my host, Sidi, was constantly infested with Tooariks and Arabs. These people visit Timbuctoo for the sole purpose of extorting from the inhabitants what they call presents, but what might be more properly called forced contributions. I have often seen them sit in the court and insist on being supplied with food until the master sent them his tribute. They always come on horseback, and their horses must be provided with forage. When the chief of the Tooariks arrives with his suite at Timbuctoo, it is a general calamity; and yet every one overwhelms him with attention, and sends presents to him and his followers. He sometimes remains there two

months, being maintained at the expense of the inhabitants and the king, who sometimes give them really valuable presents; and they return home laden with millet, rice, honey, and preserved articles. The Tooariks and Soorgoes are the same people. The former name is given to them by the Meors, and the latter by the Negroes. They are a wandering race, and inhabit the banks of the Joliba, from the village of Dire to the environs of Houssa, which my host informed me was twenty days' journey, E. by S.E. of Timbuctoo, situated in a vast country of the same name, watered by the river. The Tooariks have terrified the Negroes of their neighbourhood into subjection, and they inflict upon them the most cruel depredations and exactions. Like the Arabs, they have fine horses, which facilitate their marauding expeditions. The people exposed to their attacks stand in such awe of them, that the appearance of three or four Tooariks is sufficient to strike terror into five or six villages. At Timbuctoo the slaves are never allowed to go out of the town after sun-set, lest they should be carried off by the Tooariks, who forcibly seize all who fall in their way. The condition of these unhappy beings is then more deplorable than ever. I saw some in the little canoes almost naked, and their masters were constantly threatening to beat them. The Tooariks possess numerous flocks of sheep, and herds of oxen and goats. Milk and meat are their only food. Their slaves gather the seed of the *semphar*, which is very common in all the surrounding marshes; they dry it and thrash it. It is so small that it does not require bruising; they boil it with their fish. The Tooariks cultivate no kind of vegetable. Their slaves are employed in tending their flocks and herds. They have no grain for their own use, except what they have obtained from the flotillas passing from Jenne to Timbuctoo. During the swell of the waters, the Tooariks retire a little into the interior of the country, where they find good pasture. They have numerous herds of camels, whose milk is always a certain resource for them."

The Niger.] The amount of this traveller's information regarding the mysterious Niger is much less ample than his details respecting Timbuctoo. All that we can gather from him is that the Niger at its source is called the *Tombia*, the *Ba*, and afterwards, until it reaches Sego, the *Joliba*. To the N. of Sego it divides into two branches, which according to one authority (though this is not confirmed by Caillie) bear the names of *Ba-miou* and *Ba-leo* or, as they have been interpreted, 'the White river,' and 'the Black river.' These two branches unite at Isaca, and from that town to Cabra, the Joliba—which is there known by the name of *Couara* only—proceeds due N. to Cabra. At Cabra it turns E., and soon after is again divided into two branches, one of which the *Yeou* is supposed to run eastward into the lake of Tchad; the other and larger was traced by Park as far as Bousa, whence, according to one hypothesis, it proceeds to the Bight of Benin.

CHAP. VI.—BORGOO.

THE kingdom of Borgoo or Bargho seems to comprehend the four petty states of *Boussa*, *Kiama*, *Wawa*, and *Niki*. It is bounded on the E. by the Quorra; on the S. by Youriba; on the W. by Dahomey; and on the N. by Gourma. It extends 11 days' journey from N. to S., and 30 from E. to W. Its rivers are the *Quorra*, the *Moussa*, and the *Oli*. Of the

four states, Bousa is considered the head. The religion of Borgoo is paganism.

BOUSSA.] The state of Bousa is populous; its language is the same as that of the other states of Borgoo, which appears to be a dialect of the Youriba. The *Cambrie* Negroes, who inhabit villages situated in the woods near the Quorra, speak a dialect of their own.—The city of Bousa is situated on an island formed by the Quorra in N. lat. $10^{\circ} 14'$ and E. long. $6^{\circ} 11'$. The river is here divided into three branches. The city is built on an island which extends about three miles from N. to S., and is one mile and a half in breadth. The houses are built in clusters of huts, not occupying above one-tenth of the walled area. Outside the walls there are several villages, with plantations of corn, yams, and cotton; but the whole number of inhabitants is estimated at less than 12,000 souls. It was here that our enterprising countryman, Park, closed his career."—S.S.W. from Bousa is a *Cambrie* town called *Songa*, situated on the Quorra, which here flows with a current of about two knots and a half, between banks rising to the height of 45 or 50 feet. An hour and a half below Songa the river rushes with great force between porphyritic rocks, which occur all the way down to the village of Comie, where the stream is about two furlongs in width, and 10 or 12 feet deep in the middle. This is the great ferry of all the caravans to and from Nyfee, Housa, &c.

KIAMA.] Kiama the capital of one of the petty states or sultanies of Borgoo, is a straggling ill-built town, in N. latitude $9^{\circ} 37' 33''$ and E. long. $5^{\circ} 22' 56''$. It trades with Dahomey, Youri, Nyfee, and Youriba. "The inhabitants," says Clapperton, "are pagans of an easy faith; never praying but when they are sick or want something, and cursing their object of

¹¹ The following statement of the circumstances attending the lamented fate of this enterprising traveller, was subsequently given to captain Clapperton at Kaelfa by an eye-witness; and, together with all the information he could collect, it tallies with the story, disbelieved at the time, which Isaaco brought back from Amadi Fatooma. "He said, that when the boat came down the river, it happened unfortunately just at the time that the Fellatahs first rose in arms, and were ravaging Goober and Zamfra; that the sultan of Bousa, on hearing that the persons in the boat were white men, and that the boat was different from any that had ever been seen before, as she had a house at one end, called his people together from the neighbouring towns, attacked and killed them, not doubting that they were the advanced guard of the Fellatah army then ravaging Soodan, under the command of Malem Danfodio, the father of the present Bello; that one of the white men was a tall man with long hair; that they fought for three days before they were all killed; that the people in the neighbourhood were very much alarmed, and great numbers fled to Nyfee and other countries, thinking that the Fellatahs were certainly coming among them; that the number of persons in the boat was only four, two white men and two blacks; that they found great treasure in the boat; but that the people had all died who ate of the meat that was found in her." This meat, according to another native informant, was believed, on that account, to be human flesh, for they knew, it was added, that we white men eat human flesh. The sultan of Bousa, who was "a little boy when the event happened," showed uneasiness when inquiries were made upon the subject; as did all his people, although, upon every other, they were as frank and communicative as they were kind and hospitable. Lander afterwards received the following additional information from a *mallam* or priest, whom he met with at Wawa, and who tendered it spontaneously. "The sultan of Youri advised your countrymen to proceed the remainder of the way on land, as the passage by water was rendered dangerous by numerous sunken rocks in the Niger, and a cruel race of people inhabiting the towns on its banks. They refused, however, to accede to this, observing, that they were bound to proceed down the Niger to the salt water. The old *mallam* further observed, that, 'as soon as the sultan of Youri heard of their death, he was much affected; but it was out of his power to punish the people who had driven them into the water. A pestilence reaching Bousa at the time, swept off the king and most of the inhabitants, particularly those who were concerned in the transaction. The remainder, fancying it was a judgment of the white man's God, placed every thing belonging to the Christians in a hut, and set it on fire.' It is not a little remarkable, that it is now a common saying, all through the interior of Africa, 'Do not hurt a Christian, for if you do, you will die like the people of Bousa.'"

worship as fancy serves. The Housea slaves among them are Mahomedans, and are allowed to worship in their own way. The town may contain 30,000 inhabitants. They are looked upon as the greatest thieves and robbers in all Africa; and it is enough to call a man a native of Borgoo, to designate him as a thief and a murderer. Their government is despotic, and it appears that very little protection is given to the subject, as one town will plunder another whenever opportunity offers."

Wawa.] The town of Wawa is situated in N. lat. 9° 53' 54", and E. long. 5° 56'. It is built in the form of a square, and may contain 18,000 souls. The streets are spacious and airy; the inhabitants are a cheerful good-natured race of people, speaking a dialect of Youribanee. "I never was in a place," says Clapperton, "where drunkenness was so general."

CHAP. VII.—YOURIBA.

Extent and Boundaries.] The kingdom of Youriba, or Yarriba, extends from Paka within five miles of the coast, to about the 10th parallel of northern latitude. It is bounded, says Clapperton, by Dahomey on the W.; Ketto and the Maha countries on the N.; Borgoo on the N.E.; the Quorra to the E.; Accoura, a province of Benin, to the S.E., and Jaboo on the S. and W. Dahomey, Alladah, Maha, and Badagry were claimed as tributaries by the king of this country when visited by Clapperton.

Government, &c.] The government is an hereditary despotism. "When a king of Youriba dies," says Clapperton, "the cabboceer of Jannah, three other head cabboceers, four women, and a great many favourite slaves and others, are obliged to swallow poison, given by fetish-men in a parrot's egg: should this not take effect, the person is provided with a rope to hang himself in his own house. No public sacrifices are used, at least no human sacrifices; and no one was allowed to die at the death of the last king, as he did not die a natural death; having been murdered by one of his own sons, not the present king." "The religion of the people of Youriba," continues our traveller, "as far as I could comprehend it, consists in the worship of one God, to whom they offer sacrifices of horses, cows, sheep, goats, and fowls. At the yearly feast, all these animals are sacrificed at the fetish-house, in which a little of the blood is spilled on the ground. The whole of them are then cooked, and the king and all the people, men and women, attending, partake of the meat, drinking copiously of *pitto*,—the country ale. It is stated, moreover, that it depends on the will of the fetish-men, or priest, whether a human being or a cow, or other animal, is to be sacrificed. If a human being, it is always a criminal, and only one. The usual spot where the feast takes place, is a large open field before the king's house, under wide-spreading trees, where there are two or three fetish-houses."

Inhabitants.] Clapperton regarded the Youribanies as a mild and peaceful race. "Their lips are less thick, and their noses more inclined to the aquiline shape, than negroes in general. The men are well-made, and have an independent carriage. The women are almost invariably of a more ordinary appearance than the men, owing to their being more exposed to the sun, and to the drudgery they are obliged to undergo, all the labour of the land devolving upon them. The cotton-plant and indigo are cultivated to a considerable extent, and they manufacture the wool of their

sheep into good cloth, which is bartered with the people of the coast for rum, tobacco, European cloth, and other articles. The medium of exchange throughout the interior, is the cowry-shell. Slaves, however, form the chief article of commerce with the coast. A prime slave at Jannah is worth, in sterling money, from £3 to £4, according to the value set on the articles of barter. Domestic slaves are never sold, except for misconduct.

City of Eyo.] The city of Eyo, or Katunga, the capital of Youriba, is situated in N. lat. 8° 59', and E. long. 6° 12'. "It is built," says Clapperton, "on the sloping side, and round the base of a small range of granite hills, which, as it were, forms the citadel of the town; they are formed of stupendous blocks of grey granite of the softest kind, some of which are seen hanging from the summits in the most frightful manner, while others, resting on very small bases, appear as if the least touch would send them down into the valley beneath. The soil on which the town is built, is formed of clay and gravel, mixed with sand, which has obviously been produced from the crumbling granite. The appearance of these hills is that of a mass of rocks left bare by the tide. A belt of thick wood runs round the walls, which are built of clay, and about 20 feet high, and surrounded with a dry ditch. There are ten gates in the walls, which are about 15 miles in circumference, of an oval shape, about 4 miles in diameter one way, and 6 miles the other, the south end leaning against the rocky hills, and forming an inaccessible barrier in that quarter. The king's houses, and those of his women, occupy about a square mile, and are on the south side of the hills, having two large parks, one in front, and another facing the north. They are all built of clay, and have thatched roofs, similar to those nearer the coast. The posts supporting the verandahs, and the doors of the king's and caboceers' houses, are generally carved in bas-relief, with figures representing the boa killing an antelope or a hog, or with processions of warriors attended by drummers. The latter are by no means meanly executed, conveying the expression and attitude of the principal man in the groupe with a lofty air, and the drummer well pleased with his own music, or rather deafening noise. There are seven different markets, which are held every evening; being generally opened about three or four o'clock. The chief articles exposed for sale are, yams, corn, calavances, plantains, and bananas; vegetable butter, seeds of the colocynth, which forms a great article of food, sweetmeats, goats, fowls, sheep, and lambs; also, cloth of the manufacture of the country, and their various instruments of agriculture. *Tyona* is brought here from Bornou, and sold to all parts of the coast, where it is much in request to mix with snuff, and also as a medicine."

CHAP. VIII.—BAMBARA—JENNE.

The kingdom of Bambara is bounded on the N. by that of Birou and the country of Massina; on the E. by the kingdoms of Baedou, Donwara, and Garou; on the S. by Kong; and on the W. by Senegambia. Its length from E. to W. is about 150 leagues; and its average breadth 100 leagues. The Joliba runs through this country from W. to E., and is even navigable by canoes. Many parts of Bambara resemble the surrounding deserts; some districts are highly fertile. The inhabitants are chiefly negroes; but there are a considerable number of Moors likewise in this

country. *Sego* is the capital of this state, which also comprehended the important town of *Jenné*, which now appears to have fallen under the domination of an independent Fellatah chief.

Jenné.] Rene Caillie has supplied us with a very full account of the city of *Jenné*, which we shall here transcribe :—

" We (a caravan, with which the author performed his wearisome and perilous journey) arrived on the bank of a secondary branch of the *Dhioliba*, which comes from the N. in this part, and forms the island on which is situated the town of *Jenne*. In fording it the water was up to our waists. Its current is very rapid, and its bed is wide and sandy. We saw a great number of traders crossing the water. They were coming from *Jenne* and returning to their respective countries with merchandise. Having crossed this branch of the river, I thought myself on the island of *Jenne*; but, before we could reach the town, I found that we had to cross a second branch as deep as the other. After crossing the first branch, we found ourselves at the extremity of a large island, separated by this marigot, and formed by an arm of the river, which branches off at *Sego*, and rejoins it at *Iseca*, a village situated at the distance of a day and a half's journey from *Cougalla*. Within this large island is situated the island of *Jenne*, which is surrounded by a secondary arm of the river. I saw in the port many large canoes; some about waiting for their cargoes, and others ashore to undergo repair. I paid a visit to the market; I was surprised at the number of the people I saw there. It is well-supplied with all the necessities of life, and is constantly crowded by a multitude of strangers, and the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages, who attend to sell their produce, and to purchase salt and other commodities. There are several rows of dealers, both male and female. Some erect little palisades of straw, to protect themselves from the excessive heat of the sun; over these they throw a pagne, and thus form a small hut. Their goods are laid out in little baskets, placed on large round panniers. In going round the market, I observed some shops pretty well stocked with European commodities, which sell at a very high price. There was a great variety of cotton-goods, printed muslins, calicoes, scarlet cloth, hardware, flint, &c. Nearly the whole of these articles appeared to be of English manufacture. I saw, however, some French muskets, which are much esteemed. Among the other articles on sale, were glass trinkets, false amber, false coral, sulphur in sticks, and gunpowder, which, I was informed, is manufactured in the country. There are butchers in the market, who lay out their meat much in the same way as their brethren in Europe. They also thrust skewers through little pieces of meat, which they smoke-dry and sell retail. Great quantities of fish, fresh as well as dried, are brought to this market, in which are also to be had earthen pots, calabashes, mats, and salt; but the salt in the market is only sold retail; that which is sold wholesale is kept in the warehouses. There are great numbers of hawkers in the streets, who cry the goods which they carry about with them, as in Europe: they sell stuffs made in the country, cured provisions, solat-nuts, honey, vegetables and animal butter, milk, and fire-wood. The last article, which is scarce, is brought by women from the distance of twelve or fifteen miles round. Millet straw is sold in the market; and, during my residence in the town, I saw, every evening, negroesses purchasing each a certain quantity for ten cowries to cook their suppers: the ordinary fagots cost 120 cowries, which are equal to 12 sous. Fortunately, this is not a cold country. The Moors of *Jenne* do not keep shops: they employ confidential agents, or even slaves, to sell goods on their account. It is their custom to sit on mats before their doors, with some cakes of salt placed beside them, and in this way they wait for customers to buy their goods, or others who may wish to sell. Thus they accumulate, without giving themselves much trouble, great quantities of Ivory, gold, rice, millet, honey, raw wax, cured provisions, and heaps of small onions. These articles they deposit in their storehouses, whence they forward them to *Timbuctoo*, where they have correspondents, who send them in exchange salt, tobacco, and European merchandise. There are also *Marabouts* among the Negroes of *Jenne*; but the trade they carry on is not so considerable. The articles they deal in are seldom of great value; but consist chiefly of the *sambales*, tamarinds, pimento, long pepper, leaves and fruit of the *boobab*, gombos, leaves and fruit of *Guinea sorrel*, pistachios, beans, and a number of small articles which are brought to *Jenne* by the people of the caravans. They also send to *Timbuctoo* calabashes and earthen pots for culinary purposes. The wax purchased at *Jenne* is used for candles, which are made without moulds, and generally consumed through the country. Quantities are sent to *Timbuctoo*, where there is a great demand for them. The Moorish merchants resident in *Jenne*—about thirty or forty in number—occupy the best houses, which have, besides, the advantage of being situated near the market. The principal trade of the place is in their hands. They form companies of several partners, and are owners of large barges, which carry cargoes of native produce to *Timbuctoo*.

" *Jenne* was called by the early travellers the *Land of Gold*. However, that metal is not produced in the environs, but is frequently brought to *Jenne* by the *Mandingoes* of the Kong country, and the merchants of *Bouré*. It forms a principal branch of commerce for these rich traders. They also deal in slaves, whom they send to *Tadlet*, and to other quarters, as *Mogadore*, *Tunis*, and *Tripoli*. I have seen men leading these unfortunate beings about the streets, and crying them for sale at the rate of twenty-five, thirty, or forty thousand cowries, according to their age. I was grieved to see such an insult offered to human nature. Such of these poor creatures as I observed at *Jenne* in the families of Moors, who all keep a considerable number of them, are not the most to be pitied; they are well-fed, well-clothed, and not hard worked. Their lot would be preferable to that of the peasantry of some countries of Europe, if any thing could compensate them for the loss of liberty. In general they

become confidential servants, who take care of the house in the absence of the master, or pack the merchandise and ship it. I remarked that these masters often gave them cowries to purchase what they liked. It was pleasing to witness conduct so well calculated to promote fidelity adopted towards them. They are indeed intrusted with whole sacks of cowries to count, without any apprehension of their stealing them.

"The town of Jenne is about two miles and a half in circumference; it is surrounded by a very ill-constructed earth wall, about ten feet high, and fourteen inches thick. There are several gates, but they are small. The houses are built of bricks dried in the sun. The sand of the lake of Jenne is mixed with a little clay, and it is employed to make bricks of a round form, which are sufficiently solid. The houses are as large as those of European villages. They are all terraced, have no windows externally, and the apartments receive no air except from an inner court. The only entrance which is of ordinary size, is closed by a door made of wooden planks, pretty thick, and apparently sawed. The door is fastened on the inside by a double iron chain, and on the outside by a wooden lock made in the country. Some, however, have iron locks. The apartments are all long and narrow. The walls, especially the outer, are well plastered with sand, for they have no lime. In each house there is a staircase leading to the terrace; but there are no chimneys, and consequently the slaves cook in the open air. The streets are not straight, but they are broad enough for a country in which no carriages are used; eight or nine persons may walk in them abreast; they are kept in good order, being swept almost daily. The environs of Jenne are marshy, and entirely destitute of trees. Some clumps of romishers are, however, seen on slight elevations at very remote distances. Before the rains set in, the plains receive some tillage, and are all sown with rice, which grows with the increase of the water of the river; the slaves are the cultivators of this grain. There was also on the banks of the river some gombo, tobacco, and giraumons. I was told that in the rainy season they grow cabbages, carrots, and European turnips, the seed of which is brought from Tadmert. In the marshes is found a kind of forage, which is cut and dried for the cattle. In places not exposed to the inundation, they cultivate only millet and maize. The town of Jenne is full of bustle and animation; every day numerous caravans of merchants are arriving and departing with all kinds of useful productions. In Jenne there is a mosque built of earth, surmounted by two massive but not high towers; it is rarely constructed though very large. It is abandoned to thousands of swallows, which build their nests in it. This occasions a very disagreeable smell, to avoid which, the custom of saying prayers in a small outer court has become common. In the environs of the mosque, to which I often went, I always observed a number of beggars, reduced to mendicancy by old age, blindness, or other infirmities. The town is shaded by some baobabs, mimosa, date-trees, and romishers. I remarked another kind of tree, the name of which I do not know.

"The population of Jenne includes a number of resident strangers, as Mandingoes, Foulahs, Bambaras, and Moors. They speak the languages peculiar to their respective countries, besides a general dialect called *Kissou*, which is the language currently adopted as far as Timbuctoo. The number of the inhabitants may be computed at 5,000 or 10,000. This town was formerly independent, but it now belongs to a small kingdom, of which Segou-Ahmadou is the sovereign. He is a Foulah, and a fanatical muselman, but a great conqueror. With a very small number of followers he has subdued several districts in the south of Bambara, where he has introduced his religion, and enforced obedience. Jenne was his capital; but this zealous disciple of the prophet, finding that the great trade of that town interfered with his religious duties, and drew aside the true believers from their devotions, founded another town on the right bank of the river. He named it *El-Lamdon-Lillahi*, (to the praise of God), the first words of a prayer in the Koran. At this place there are public schools in which children are taught gratuitously. There are also schools for adults, according to the degree of their information. This devout chief is brother to the king of Messina, a country situated on the left bank of the Dholiba. Segou-Ahmadou does not levy contributions on the merchants who resort to Jenne for the purpose of trade. Foreign merchants settled in the country are not subject to taxes any more than natives; but they send presents to the king, as well as to his brother, the chief of Jenne. All the inhabitants of Jenne are Mohammedans. They do not permit infidels to enter their town; and when the Bambara people come to Jenne, they are obliged to repeat the Mohammedan prayers, otherwise they would be unmercifully beaten by the Foulahs, who form the majority of the population. I found the inhabitants very civil to strangers, at least to those of their own religion; and they put traders in the way of disposing of their goods. They have several wives, whom, however, they do not ill treat, like the negroes further to the south. The women never go out unveiled, and are not allowed to eat their meals with their husbands, or even with their male children. The girls, when they attain a suitable age, assist their mothers in cooking, washing, and other household business. They occupy their leisure moments in spinning cotton, which they buy in the market, far in the marshy environs of the city it is not cultivated; however, on the west side I saw a little field of cotton surrounded by a thorn-hedge. It appeared to be of very inferior quality, and does not thrive well. The people of Jenne know no other writing than that of the Arabs: almost all can read, though few understand it. There are schools for youth, like those which I have already described. After the children have learnt every thing that is taught in these schools, they are sent to *El-Lamdon-Lillahi*; and when they know the Koran by heart, they are looked upon as learned men. They then return to their native places, and enter into trade. The inhabitants of Jenne live very well: they eat rice boiled with fresh meat, which is to be procured every day in the market. With the fine millet they make cocoons: this is eaten with fresh or dried fish, of which they have great abundance. Their dishes are highly seasoned; they use a good deal of allspice, and salt is common enough.

to enable every one to get it. The expense of maintenance for a single individual is about twenty-five or thirty cowries per day. Meat is not dear in this place: a piece which costs forty cowries (twenty centimes) is enough to furnish a dinner for four persons. They generally make two meals a-day; all sitting round one dish, and each taking out a portion with his hand, like all the inhabitants of the interior.

"Sogo-Ahmadou, the chief of Jenne, maintains an active war against the Bambaras of Sego, whom he wishes to subject to the standard of the prophet; but the Bambaras, who are a warlike race, resist him. This war is very injurious to the trade of Jenne, because it interrupts all communications with Yamina, Samanding, Bamako, and Boura, whence the gold is brought which is circulated in the interior. The town of Jenne can no longer be considered as the central point of commerce. Yamina, Samanding, and Bamako, are, in reality, the entrepôts: those places are visited by trading Moors from all parts of the desert, and by the negroes of the Soudan, from Kong to Galam, Bondon, and the Fouta-Djallon."

SENEGAMBIA.

GENERAL ACCOUNT OF THE NEGROES.

BEFORE entering on the geography of the pagan Negro countries of Africa, we shall present the reader with an outline of the manners of their inhabitants, chiefly applicable to the Senegambian, but likewise to the Guinea Negroes, and in some respects to the Negro inhabitants of Nigritia, which will afford a more connected view of this interesting and much injured race of people than we could otherwise present in our particular descriptions.

Physical Constitution.] “The Negroes,” says Malte Brun, “amidst all the varieties of their colour and conformation, seldom labour under bodily defects. Their health is kept up by a simple style of living, exercise, and perspiration; and among some Negro nations, if not all, infants born with any defect are destroyed. The Negroes do not seem to have inherited the privilege of the ancient Macrobianæ. The length of their lives, at least at Senegambia and at Sierra Leone, is not equal to ours. Instances of longevity are very common among the Negroes transported to the colonies, which must belong to some tribes more favoured by nature. Fevers, diarrhœa, small-pox, leprosy, a variety of syphilis called the *pian*, and the Guinea-worm, are the most common scourges of the life of the Negro.—The thin beard of the Negroes partakes of the woolly character of their hair, yet in pruriency of temperament, and vigour of constitution, and fecundity of population, they excel all other races of mankind; and polygamy is carried to a greater excess among them than in any other part of the world. There are some nations which give their teeth a pointed form by filing. But Isert asserts that he has seen some Negroes whose teeth were naturally so formed. Some among them boast of being cannibals, and, to prove the fact, will bite off a piece of flesh from the arm of a bystander. The practice of making incisions in the skin prevails, in various forms and degrees, among all the Negro nations which have preserved their primitive character. The Mandingoes have vertical cuts over their whole body. The same sort of mark is found among the Akras, the Watieha, the Tamboos, the Mokkos, and the Eyéos of Guinea, and among the inhabitants of Bornoo, Darfoor, and Mobba. The situation and number of these incisions vary. The people of Darfoor are marked in the face and the back, those of Mobba in the neck. The Mokkos mark their bodies on the stomach with figures of trees and foliage. The Calabars mark their foreheads with cuts in a horizontal direction, the Sokkos with two crossed lines. The Subaloos cover the cheeks and the whole body with curved lines, crossing one another. The Mangrees mark themselves under the eyes with a figure resembling the letter V inverted. Some tribes near Sierra Leone have the art of making their skin rise in elevated marks like basso relievos.”

General Character.] The Negroes of Western and of Central Africa are, by Park, Denham, and Clapperton—each of whom had many opportunities of forming an impartial judgment—characterised as a gentle race,

in their attention to the duties of hospitality, forming a striking contrast with their neighbours the Moors. The early education of the youth is committed to the female sex; and the first lesson inculcated is the love of truth,—a lesson which they generally practice in life. From the prevailing system of polygamy, the attention of a father is divided among the children of many wives; while the attention of a mother centres entirely in her own offspring. This produces a reciprocal affection between mother and child, which is unknown in countries where the affections are divided between both parents. No affront can be offered to a Negro equal to that of defaming his mother: "Strike me," exclaimed one of Park's attendants, "but do not curse my mother!" It has been remarked that, although the Negroes are divided into numerous tribes, living in the neighbourhood of each other, their animosities are not so frequent nor so implacable as those of the North Americans; still it would be incorrect to deduce from this any superior gentleness of disposition. The Negroes are farther advanced in civilization. They are no longer hunters and fishers; they are advancing from the state of shepherds, to that more civilized state in which life is sustained by the produce of agriculture, and in which rapid advances are made towards the perfection of arts, manufactures, and commerce. This state is perhaps the most favourable to benevolent feelings, and the practice of hospitality. When agriculture supplies in abundance the necessities of life,—and when commerce has not yet taught men the value of the most minute part of the produce of their labour,—the benevolent affections are not curbed in their exercise. Man here considers man as his brother; and willingly gives because he has not yet learned to sell. This state has, in all countries where it has prevailed, produced similar effects. Still there is much hostility subsisting between the African tribes. They often make war on each other for the sake of plunder; and in such expeditions their cruelty has no bounds. These hordes of robbers reckon it quite an allowable feat in war to rush on peaceful villages by surprise,—to set fire to all the dwellings,—to massacre the male inhabitants,—and to carry off the survivors for slaves. In consequence of this lawless spirit, the peacefully disposed inhabitants have no security for enjoying the fruits of their labours. In an instant they may be enveloped in a whirlwind of cavalry, and may be either massacred or swept away into an unknown and hostile land. Park found the Negroes, during his peregrination in their country, desirous of stealing from him whatever he possessed which to them appeared curious. He is, however, candid enough to confess, that in their transactions with each other, they are not more dishonest than other nations. With regard to their dishonesty respecting himself, he remarks, that every article belonging to him was to the Negroes not only curious but also valuable,—that the laws of the country afforded him neither protection nor redress,—and, he justly adds, that were any person, in similar circumstances, to travel in any of the more civilized European nations, "the wonder would be, not that the stranger was robbed of any part of his riches, but that any part was left to a second depredator."

Domestic Customs.] Polygamy is practised both by the pagan Negroes or *Kafirs*, and by the Mahomedan converts. The only difference is, that the latter are confined to four wives,—the former may take as many as they think proper, or rather as many as they can purchase and support. These wives are seldom treated with cruelty, nor is jealousy so predominant here as among the Moors. They have the management of the house by turns, and it is said, seldom afford their husbands much reason either to suspect or

chastise them,—an account that differs widely from that which many writers have given of the Negroes inhabiting the interior of Africa. "A Negro pays his addresses to a girl, and if, after a short acquaintance, he fancies she will answer his purpose, he simply gives or sends a small present to the parents, who rarely raise any obstacles to balk his wishes; whereupon the female quits her father's house, and resides, as long as she lives, with her suitor. The courtship of a Mahomedan is carried on in much the same fashion, with the addition of reading the *fatha* or marriage ceremony. When they get tired of each other, the *fatha* is again read, and the couple part for ever, with as much coolness and unconcern as if they had been utter strangers to each other. This convenient custom is greatly relished by every one, and is seldom known to produce any unpleasant consequences. The Africans have less of *sentiment* in their love affairs than Europeans. They have no stolen interviews, no rambling in verdant fields, no affectionate squeezes of the hand, no language of the eyes, no refined feeling, no moonlight reveries. All is conducted in the most unpoetical business-like way imaginable, and is considered in the light of one of their least important concerns, the lover merely saying to his intended bride, 'Should you like to become my wife, my dear?' to which the lady replies, 'I have no objection.' 'Then come and live with me,' retorts the man; and from that hour the couple reside together. This is the beginning and end of their courtship, and I never heard of a refusal on the lady's part to embrace the proposal. The notions of female perfection amongst the people consist in the bulk, plumpness, and rotundity of the object; and a perfect beauty in their estimation, as it has often been remarked, is a load for a camel."

Children receive their names when seven or eight days old. If the parents can afford it, this ceremony is accompanied with a feast; at any rate a dish called *dega*, made of pounded corn and sour milk, is reckoned indispensably necessary. The child's head is shaved. He who officiates is generally a Mussulman. A prayer is pronounced over the *dega*, during which each person present lays hold of the brim of the dish. The Mussulman then takes the child in his arms, and repeats a second prayer, whispers a few sentences in the child's ear, and spits thrice in its face. He then pronounces the name aloud, and returns the child to its mother. The *dega* is divided among the company; and if any person in the neighbourhood be sick, he receives a large portion of this dish, which is supposed to have many medicinal virtues. The name of the child is not always that of some of his relations; it is often expressive of some peculiar circumstances; and besides his proper name, every Negro has a surname indicative of the tribe or clan to which he belongs.

The amusements of the Negroes consist chiefly of poetry, music, and dancing. Their bards are numerous, and are divided into two classes. Those of the first class record the deeds of their ancestors, and accompany the armies, that by their recitations they may inspire courage and fortitude. They are often employed in celebrating the praises of the great and powerful still in existence; and in that case, their labours are very generously rewarded. The other class consists of Mahomedan enthusiasts, who traverse the country singing hymns and directing the performance of religious ceremonies. This class, though less numerous than the former, is nevertheless much respected, and frequently employed.

Of their musical instruments Park gives us the following catalogue. "The *koonting*, a sort of guitar with three strings; the *kerro*, a large harp

with eighteen strings; the *simbing*, a small harp with seven strings; the *calafon*, an instrument composed of twenty pieces of hard wood of different lengths, with the shells of gourds hung underneath, to increase the sound; the *tangtang*, a drum open at the lower end; and lastly the *tabala*, a large drum commonly used to spread an alarm through the country." "Besides these," he continues, "they make use of small flutes, bowstrings, elephants' teeth (hollowed), and small bells: and at all their dances and concerts, clapping of hands appears to constitute a necessary part of the chorus."

Wrestling matches and dancing form great part of the entertainment of the Negroes. Of particular matches of this kind, Park, an eye-witness, gives the following description: "The spectators arranged themselves in a circle, leaving the intermediate space for the wrestlers, who were strong active young men, full of emulation, and accustomed, I suppose, from their infancy to this sort of exertion. Being stripped of their clothing, except a pair of short drawers, and having their skin anointed with oil, or shea butter, the combatants approached each other, on all fours, parrying with, and occasionally extending a hand for some time, till at length one of them sprang forward, and caught his rival by the knee. Great dexterity and judgment were now displayed; but the contest was decided by superior strength; and I think that few Europeans would have been able to cope with the conqueror. It must not be unobserved, that the combatants were animated by the music of a drum, by which their actions were in some measure regulated. The wrestling was succeeded by a dance, in which many performers assisted, all of whom were provided with little bells, which were fastened to their legs and arms; and here too the drum regulated their motions. It was beaten with a crooked stick, which the drummer held in his right hand, occasionally using his left to deaden the sound, and thus vary the music. The drum is likewise applied on these occasions to keep order among the spectators, by imitating the sound of certain Mandingo sentences: for example, when the wrestling match is about to begin, the drummer strikes what is understood to signify *ali bas see*,—'sit all down'; upon which the spectators immediately seat themselves; and when the combatants are to begin, he strikes *amuta, amuta*,—'take hold, take hold.'"

Food and Meals.] The breakfast of the Negroes is ready by daybreak, and generally consists of meal and water, with as much of the fruit of the tamarind as is sufficient to give the whole an acid taste. Dinner, to which they sit down about two, consists of a species of hasty pudding, with *shea-butter*. The principal meal is supper, which is seldom ready before midnight, and always consists of what is here called *kouskous*, the *coocoosoo* of the Moors. In eating, the right hand only is used. They make use of beer and mead, similar to that made in Europe; and in their use of these liquors, moderation is sometimes forgotten. But this must be understood only of such as adhere not to the Mahommedan faith; water is the beverage of every Mussulman. Tobacco is smoked by almost every person, and snuff is no less generally used. The pipe is of wood, with an earthen bowl. Salt is in Negroland the greatest of luxuries,—a luxury which the use of vegetable food makes the more necessary.

Employments.] The Negroes, inhabiting a fertile country, and having no opportunity of advantageously disposing of their superfluous produce, labour little more than is requisite to furnish them with the necessities of life. The Europeans upon the coast, ever intent on the accumulation of

wealth, have for this reason accounted them indolent. It is very probable, however, that were the Negroes placed in a situation favourable to the acquisition of wealth, their avarice, like that of other men, would soon display itself, and prompt them to exertions no less painful than those which by this passion are imposed on the Europeans. Agriculture, as it furnishes the chief part of their subsistence, occupies the greatest share of their attention, and gives them almost constant employment during the rainy season. During the dry season, many of the men are occupied in the domestic labour of weaving. Others are busied fishing or hunting. The fish are caught in small nets made of cotton, or in baskets: as salt is wanting, they are cured by drying them in the sun. In hunting, the weapons made use of are bows and arrows. In the use of these weapons they are very expert, and hit the smallest object at a great distance.

The only occupations which among the Negroes are considered as separate professions, are the manufacturing of leather and of iron. The manufacture of iron is not attempted near the coast, since there it can be cheaply purchased of the Europeans; but in the interior, it is made in such quantities, as to serve not only for their own use, but as an article of commerce with several distant tribes. The ore is smelted in a small circular furnace, of a very simple construction. The iron is brittle, and partakes of the nature of steel. It is manufactured into various weapons, and agricultural implements, of which the workmanship is said not to be despicable. Iron is not the only metal on which the Negroes employ their ingenuity. They smelt gold, and forming it into a species of wire, make of it many ornaments which are said to display much taste and ingenuity. In these countries the tanning of leather is a simple process. The hide is steeped in a mixture of wood-ashes and water, till the hair can be easily separated. As an astringent, they use the pounded leaves of a tree, called *goo*; and, by rubbing it frequently between their hands, and beating it upon a stone, it is rendered soft and pliable. Of the hides of bullocks thus manufactured are made sandals; and of the skins of goats and sheep are formed sheaths for swords and knives, pockets, belts, and different kinds of ornaments. These skins are dyed of a red or yellow colour. To the women are committed several parts of the process of manufacturing cotton-cloth. They prepare the cotton by rolling it in small quantities, under an iron spindle, till they have separated from it the seeds. In spinning they use the distaff. The thread is not fine, but is so carefully twisted that it forms a durable cloth. The weaving, as has been already mentioned, belongs to the men. Owing to the narrowness of the loom, the cloth is seldom more than 4 inches broad. This cloth is dyed of a fine blue colour by the women.

Scientific Ideas.] The Negroes consider the earth as a great extended plain, of which the terminations are unknown. Like many other tribes, they suppose their own country to be the most favoured by nature. The sea is described as a great river of salt water, separating them from the land of the white people. They imagine that the slaves purchased by the white people, are carried to a distant region, inhabited by cannibals of gigantic stature. The year is divided into the rainy and dry seasons; and subdivided into *moons*. Whether or not they subdivide the month into quarters or weeks, we are not informed. Considerable attention is paid to the motions of the moon, and they esteem it very unlucky to undertake any important business in the last quarter. Their knowledge of astronomy, however, is extremely defective. Eclipses are generally ascribed to witchcraft.

Religious Ideas.] The *Kafirs*, or Negroes who have not embraced the

doctrines of Mahomet, believe in the existence of a Supreme Deity, by whose power all things were formed, and by whose care all things are still preserved in existence. But they suppose that this Deity is too far removed in excellence from the human race to take them under his immediate care; and therefore they seldom address a petition to him. At the appearance of the new moon, they give vent to an ejaculatory address, thanking him for his goodness during the month that has elapsed, and imploring a continuance of his favour, during the month that is commencing. This simple act of worship, which is performed both by the Mahomedan converts, and by the Kafsra, appears to be their only religious act which concerns the Supreme Deity. As they believe, that the Supreme Deity is of a nature too exalted to concern himself in what takes place in this world, they suppose the existence of a number of inferior deities, who superintend every sublunary transaction. These inferior deities, they consider, as being much more imperfect than the Supreme Divinity; they neither possess unbounded benevolence, nor are their resolutions unalterable. To them, therefore, they address the greater part of their worship, to ensure their good will, or to avert their wrath. The Negro offers to them a handful of fruit, or a snake's head; and having suspended a white fowl to the branch of a certain kind of tree, he imagines that he has secured the protection of his god. The belief of a future state is no less firmly established among the Negroes, than the belief in the existence of a Deity. It is said, that they believe even in a state of rewards and punishments. Concerning their ideas of the nature of this state, we have received little information. That they believe it to be a state somewhat different from the present, may be inferred from their funeral ceremonies. The body of a dead person is buried without any wealth, or any utensil. Of whatever rank the person may be, no one is put to death, to attend him in the state of futurity. This, however, is only a negative proposition,—concerning their positive notions we are not authorized to conclude. Those who profess the Mahomedan religion among the Negroes, are as ignorant and superstitious, Lander says, as their idolatrous brethren. He too, generally found the followers of the false prophet to be less hospitable to strangers, less kind to each other, and more mischievous and wicked than the pagan part of the community. Their claims to superior intelligence are grounded simply on the oral communications of the principles of the Koran, received from time to time from the wandering Moors and Arabs. The Mahomedan Negroes go through their ablutions regularly; and, when water is not to be obtained, make use of sand. The Felatahs who profess Islamism understand and make use of a few Arabic prayers; but the Negro can hardly articulate in Arabic more than the word *Allah*, or *Bismallah*; he who can utter so long a sentence as *La illah el Allah rasoul Allahi*, 'There is but One God, and Mahomet is his prophet,' is styled *mallam*, or learned. The Mahomedan faith is making such rapid strides, however, in Central and Western Africa, that in Lander's opinion in a generation or two paganism will be altogether unknown in the land.

Institution of the Sime.] Among the pagan Negroes there are various secret institutions of a character resembling free-masonry. One of the most singular of these associations exists among the tribes on the banks of the Rio Nunez. Rene Caillie has given us the following minute account of it:—"It has a head, who is called the *Sime*; he makes laws, and they are executed under his authority. This *Sime* lives in the woods, and is never seen by the uninitiated; he is attended by pupils who are partly ini-

tiated in the mysteries. Sometimes he assumes the form of a pelican,—sometimes he is wrapped up in the skins of wild beasts,—and sometimes he is covered from head to foot with leaves, which conceal his real shape. The families in several different villages, who wish to have their children admitted, collect all the boys between the ages of 12 and 14, and send for the Simo. He comes to the place in disguise, to circumcise the children, none but candidates being present at the operation; the ceremony is accompanied by a great feast, which lasts sometimes for several days. After it is over, the Simo withdraws to the woods, and takes with him the boys who have been initiated; from this time forward, they have no further communication with their relatives. They lead a pleasant idle life; provisions are bestowed upon them in abundance, and they dwell in huts made of the branches of trees, with no other clothing than a few palm-leaves skilfully arranged, from the loins half-way down the thighs, the head and the rest of the body being quite naked. When the Simo or his disciples meet a stranger in the wood, they ask him for the watchword of the order; if the answer is correct, the stranger is admitted amongst them; if not, the master and his pupils, all armed with sticks and rods, attack him, and, after beating him severely, exact a high ransom. If an uncircumcised boy falls into their hands, they circumcise him and keep him, for the purpose of initiating him. The young persons thus initiated lead this idle and vagabond life for seven or eight years; this period it is said is necessary for their instruction. When the parents are desirous of getting them back from the woods, they collect all the pagnes they can, and make with them a fine girdle, which they adorn with copper bells, and send it to their children, with a present of tobacco and rum for the master. It is only at such times that the Simo shows himself in public. The eve of this festival is celebrated in the woods, near the spot where he is to make his appearance, and he gives notice by his loud shouts that he means to be visible. Without this notice no person excepting the initiated durst look at him, for they are foolish enough to think it unlucky; and, if they were to feel ill after it, they would not fail to ascribe it to the unfortunate glance. On the festival day, the Simo again announces his approach by frightful howlings, which are imitated by his pupils with cows' horns. They are all armed with whips in token of their authority. Those who have been formerly initiated, and reside in the neighbouring villages, collect and join in the rejoicings. They dress themselves in their best apparel, and, preceded by the music of the country, march at the head of the troop. After having complimented the Simo, they make him a little present, and conduct him in triumph to the village with the sound of the *tontom*. Those who are present accompany the music with their monotonous singing, and fire off guns. The women also assemble, singing, and bearing each a calabash of rice, which they fling at the Simo, by way of offering, amid dances and shouts of joy. These festivals are usually very gay; much palm-wine and rum are drunk, sheep and oxen are killed, and there is great feasting, which lasts several days. When all this rejoicing is over, the children whose parents cannot afford to make presents to the Simo, return with him into the woods, and continue the same course of life for seven or eight years longer. When they are old enough to be serviceable, however, they are allowed to help their parents, at the approach of the rainy season, to work in the fields; after which they return to the woods, and the master employs them in cultivating his land. When the initiated return to their families, they set up before their doors a tree, or merely a stake, at the end of which is suspended a small piece of

stuff, most commonly white. The tree or stake, whichever it may happen to be, is a gift from the master, in return for the handsome present which he has received. They give the name of Simo to this tree or stake, and it becomes their tutelar deity; they respect and fear it so much, that, to prevent any one from going to a particular spot, it is only necessary to set up a Simo before it. They also swear by it, and believe that a false oath would draw upon them the vengeance of this mysterious demon; they are even afraid of lying, lest they should provoke its interference. If any thing is owing to them, or if any one has taken from them some article which they cannot recover, they piously address their prayers to this bit of wood, and offer it a sacrifice of rice, honey, or palm-wine, firing off a gun at its foot. This is a species of complaint which they make to the Simo, to petition for redress. From this time, if any of the debtor's family should fall sick, it is ascribed to the agency of the Simo; the relations in a fright hasten to discharge the debt, to return what has been stolen, or to make reparation if any insult has been offered. They believe in sorcery and witchcraft; whoever is suspected of sorcery is forthwith delivered to the Simo, who acts as chief magistrate. The accused is questioned, and if he confesses, he is condemned to pay a fine; if, on the other hand, he maintains his innocence, he is compelled to drink a liquor made with the bark of a tree which gives to water a beautiful red colour. The accused and the accuser are obliged to swallow the same medicine, or rather poison; they must drink it fasting, and entirely naked, except that the accused is allowed the distinction of a white pagne, which he wraps round his loins. The liquor is poured into a small calabash, and the accuser and accused are forced to take an equal quantity, until unable to swallow more, they expel it or die. If the poison is expelled by vomiting, the accused is innocent, and then he has a right to reparation; if it passes downwards, he is deemed not absolutely innocent; and if it should not pass at all at the time, he is judged to be guilty. I have been assured that few of these wretched creatures survive this ordeal; they are compelled to drink so large a dose of the poison, that they die almost immediately. If, however, the family of the accused consent to pay an indemnity, the unhappy patient is excused from drinking any more liquor; he is then put into a bath of tepid water, and by the application of both feet to the abdomen, they make him cast up the poison which he has swallowed. This cruel ordeal is employed for all sorts of crimes. The consequence is, that though it may sometimes lead to the confession of crimes, it also induces the innocent to acknowledge themselves guilty, rather than submit to it. It is not lawful either to quarrel or fight near the places which are inhabited by the mystical magistrate. When war is to be carried on in the neighbourhood, notice is given to the Simo and his retinue to retire. If two adversaries were to fight while he was near, they would be forced immediately to take him a present as a reparation for having disturbed him; if they were to omit this, they would fancy that some great calamity was continually impending over them. When they carry their gift to the Simo, they are obliged to turn their backs to him, and put their hands over their eyes; he receives the offering, pronounces a long prayer, and picks up a little earth, which he throws at them in token of absolution. After this ridiculous ceremony, the disturbers of the Simo's peace return perfectly satisfied. During the few days that I was at Kakondy I heard the Simo and his attendants howling horribly while dancing."

Laws.] In several of the Pagan countries of the interior of Africa

there being no written code in existence, the natives appoint elders to administer justice, at the head of whom the king or chief generally presides. In petty cases, such as trifling assaults, and other misdemeanours, the parties concerned compromise the matter without referring it to the general assembly of their tribe. In Badagry the fetish priests are the sole judges of the people, and the statutes of their country—as in the case of the Druids—are recorded on their own hearts only. Murder, adultery, and theft are the most general crimes, and in many African countries are punishable with death, banishment, or perpetual imprisonment. In Youriba and Nyffee the relations of a murdered person may and often do accept of blood-money. In Badagry, Borgoo, and Houssa an individual guilty of slaying a freeman, instantly forfeits his life, and his body is left to be devoured by the vultures. In cases of adultery, the injured husband is at liberty to do what he pleases with his unfaithful partner. Theft in Nyffee is punished by imprisonment; and in aggravated cases by tedious confinement. Slaves guilty of theft are uniformly decapitated in Youriba without the benefit of trial. In Youriba and Borgoo women concealing pregnancy are publicly whipped; and mothers are obliged to suckle their offspring three years. The laws preserved only in the memories of the people, punish all disorders with severity; but in a state which is a prey to anarchy, the execution of them is precarious, and absolute chiefs apply them to the cruel purpose of increasing their stock of slaves. In general the most trifling theft is visited with this doom. Private individuals who sue for a debt, have on the other hand the greatest difficulty to obtain their due right. Pleaders of a bullying and intriguing character here, as in Southern Africa, display an astonishing degree of art at the *palavers*, or judicial assemblies. A merchant who cannot obtain justice, often pays himself by causing the children or relations of a dishonest debtor to be secretly carried off and sold as slaves.

Languages.] Among the various tribes inhabiting the Negro districts of Africa different languages are spoken: but the language of the *Mandingoes* seems to be, to the western part of Africa, what the French has long been to Europe. It is generally understood, from the coast to the confines of Bambarra,—an extent which includes more than twelve degrees of longitude. In a state somewhat corrupted from its native purity, it extends much farther. Its northern boundary is the country of the Moors. How far south it may reach we are not told. That this language has extended so far, must be owing to some qualities which it possesses, superior to those of the other languages which are prevalent in the country. It appears to be more harmonious, more regular in its construction, and consequently more easily acquired.*

* The following is a specimen furnished by Park, which, according to his own observation, may be useful in the West Indies; since it is a language intelligible to many of the Negroes.

Do you understand Mandingo?

I understand it

I do not understand you

Come hither

Is your father or mother living?

alive?

dead?

Have you any brothers or sisters?

Where are they?

Are they in Africa?

Are they on board the ship?

Point them out

Mandingo kummo moi?

ya moi

ma moi

na na re

ee fa, ou ee ba abergee?

abergee?

asala?

ee ba ding abergee?

biminto?

abbe fato fong doo?

abbe Tobaubo Calon o Kenno?

aitanna

Many of the districts in which the Mandingo language is spoken have languages peculiar to themselves. Of these languages nothing remarkable is known. Park affords us the following specimens.

	<i>Feeleopa.</i>	<i>Jaloffi.</i>	<i>Foulahs</i>	<i>Serawoolies.</i>	<i>Mandingoes.</i>
One	Emery	Wean	Go	Bene	Kilhh
Two	Seaba or Cocaba	Yar	Deedee	Fillo	Foolah
Three	Siajee	Yat	Tates	Socco	Sabbai
Four	Sibakeer	Yanet	Nee	Narratto	Nannl
Five	Footuck	Joodom	Jouee	Karrago	Loolee
Six	Footuck-Emery	Judom Wean	Jego	Toomo	Wore
Seven	Footuck-Cockaba	Judom Yar	Jedeedee	Nero	Orongio
Eight	Footuck-Siajee	Judom-yat	Je Tettes	Sago	Lae
Nine	Footuck-Sibakeer	Judom yanet	Je Nee	Kabbo	Coounta
Ten	Sibankenyen	Fook	Sappo	Tamo	Tang

Condition of Slaves.] In this part of Africa, Park assures us, that hired servants, that is, persons of free condition voluntarily working for pay, are unknown. This is not altogether consistent with his former assertion that the “*Karankaa*, or dressers of leather, frequently travel through the country, in the exercise of their calling.” He probably means that hired servants, for the purposes of agriculture, or domestic labour are unknown. The lower ranks in society are the property of the higher; and constitute what are denominated slaves. These slaves, it is asserted, bear no less proportion to the freemen in every part of the country than that of three to one. In other words, three-fourths of the whole number of inhabitants are reduced to a state of servitude.

Among the Negroes, we are informed by Park, that the slaves are of two kinds: such as were born slaves,—or such as were born free, but have become slaves by some of the vicissitudes of human life. Every one who is born of enslaved parents is a slave, and can seldom hope to obtain his freedom, unless he be so fortunate as to take two prisoners of war, to give in his stead. Slaves of this kind are much more numerous, than such as have become so from a state of freedom.

A person born free, may according to the same traveller, become a slave, for any one of the four following causes; captivity, famine, insolvency, and crimes. Captivity—by which is meant the condition of prisoners of war,—is the most frequent cause of reducing freemen to a state of slavery. Few, however, are made prisoners in open war, when compared with those carried into captivity in consequence of predatory excursions undertaken only for plunder. These predatory excursions are sometimes conducted

What is the matter with you?
Are you in health?
I am sick
Show me your tongue
Give me your hand
Are you hungry?
I am hungry
Are you thirsty?
I am thirsty
I am not hungry
I am not thirsty
Does your head ache?
It does ache
Does your stomach pain you?
Do you sleep well?
Are you feverish?
Do not be afraid
There is no danger
Drink this medicine
It will do you good

mun bela?
Ko ee Kinde?
mun Kinde
ee ning ailanna
ee boulla adima
Konkolabinna?
Konkolabinna
mindolabinna?
mindolabinna
Konko inteegee
mino inteegee
ee Koon bideemina?
bideemina
ee Konna bideemina?
Ko ee sinoo betiki?
acandata?
Kanna Seelan
torra inteegee
ning borri ameen
ae Kissi

by private resentment; but are much more frequently the consequence of the connexion of the Negroes with the European slave-merchants. War, which probably introduced slavery, still continues to be the most plentiful source of supply. The people from Darfoor, and other neighbouring tribes, invade the interior at least every second year, with no other than the avowed purpose of murdering every individual who refuses to exchange his liberty for the cruel fetters of slavery. When the failure of a crop, either through an unfavourable season, or the depredations of war, has introduced a famine, the Negro, when he has given for food all the little wealth which he possessed, is sometimes reduced to the dreadful necessity of selling one part of his family to preserve the other from starving. But, whatever the slave-merchants may affirm, this is an expedient which is never willingly adopted, and very few are in this manner reduced to a state of slavery. When a Negro has no family to preserve his life, he sometimes parts with his own freedom. A Negro, who has contracted debts which he is unable to pay, may be sold to satisfy his creditors. This is far from being a productive cause of slavery, since few Negroes involve themselves in debt, except such as are sufficiently near the coast to speculate in trade with the Europeans. The crimes of murder, adultery, and witchcraft, are, by the laws of Negroland, punishable with slavery. But these crimes are seldom subjected to so severe a punishment.

Such is the state of slavery in this part of Africa. In this account we may observe a remarkable distinction between domestic slaves or such as have been born in a man's house, and slaves arising from the other sources. The sole power of the master over the former is that of bestowing moderate correction when they appear to deserve it. He neither can sell them nor punish them severely without bringing them to a public trial. Their situation, in short, differs little from that of the peasants in some European countries. The former are bound to the person of their master,—the latter to the soil which they are to cultivate. The former may be made to work at different occupations,—the latter may be successively subjected to different proprietors. The former may be taken from place to place, but cannot be sold,—the latter cannot be removed from the estate where they are born, but are sold as often as that estate changes its proprietor. The former works with his master in the same field, and eats with him at the same table,—the latter considers his proprietor as a superior being, and scarcely ventures to look at him as he passes. Such are the chief differences between these two orders of men; and from such differences, it can scarcely be argued that the condition of the latter is greatly superior to that of the former. It is evident, therefore, that no domestic slave can be sold to the slave-merchant till he commit some crime for which he might have been sold, had he been born free. The slaves with whom the ships of the slave-merchants are freighted, are in general such as have been taken in war; and it is evident, that wars, more particularly those of the predatory kind, have become much more frequent since the Negroes have experienced the profits arising from the traffic in slaves. This surely had not occurred to Park, when he assures us, that "If his sentiments should be required concerning the effect which a discontinuance of that commerce would produce on the manners of the natives, he should have no hesitation in observing, that, in the present unenlightened state of their minds, his opinion is, the effects would neither be so extensive or beneficial as many wise and worthy persons fondly expect." It may easily be granted that the slave-trade has not introduced domestic slavery; and that its discon-

tinuance would not abolish it. But it is no less evident, that wars, both of an open and depredatory kind, must have become much more frequent here; that harsh masters frequently accuse their domestic slaves wrongfully, or use them so as to induce them to commit crimes, that they may receive the profits of their sale; and that the sovereigns of the several nations must be more willing to oppress their subjects,—to multiply crimes,—to listen to accusers,—and, without much inquiry, to condemn the accused, in order to increase their wealth. If these practices originated in the slave-trade, the entire abolition of that traffic would, surely, tend at least to diminish them. If such practices be real evils, the cessation of them must certainly be beneficial; and if the evil be extensive, the benefit could scarcely be less so. Park appears, therefore, to have spoken in this instance, without full consideration. Domestic slavery would not be abolished; but this has never been attributed to the slave-trade; at any rate, it vanishes before war, tyranny, and injustice,—the terrific offspring of the commerce in slaves,—an offspring which could hardly subsist in the same vigour, if separated from the parent.

We now proceed to the geography of Senegambia.

SENEGAMBIA.

Boundaries and Extent.] Senegambia receives its name from its two principal rivers. It is bounded on the N. by the Sahara; on the E. by Nigritia; on the S. by Upper Guinea, and on the W. by the Atlantic ocean. It extends between the 9th and 18th parallels of northern latitude.

Divisions.] This region is divided into a great number of small states. The principal of these towards the W. are the kingdom of *Cayor*, the country of the *Yolofs* or *Jolofs*, the country of the *Feloupes*, the country of the *Biafaras*, and the country of the *Balantes* and *Papels*. Towards the N. are the kingdoms of *Footatoro*, *Galam*, *Bambouk*, *Ludamar*, and *Kaarta*. On the E. we find the kingdoms of *Fouladoo*, *Brouko*, and *Gadou*. On the S. are the country of *Manding*, and the kingdom of *Fouta-Diallon*, or the country of the *Foolahs*. The states of *Bondou* and *Woolli* occupy the centre.

Physical Features.] This country is for the most part flat and sandy. The heights which form Cape Verd, and some hills near Oual, alone break this uniformity; the left bank of the Sierra Leone river also presents a very considerable elevation. The whole of this region, proceeding from the coast eastward, presents three distinctly marked divisions. The 1st may be considered as a prolongation of the Sahara; the 2d is 40 leagues wide, and ends at the mouth of the Rio Nunez; it consists of a soil partly sandy and partly argillaceous; the 3d, extending as far as the first terrace of the mountains, is 60 leagues broad, and terminates at the river of Sierra Leone; its soil is argillaceous, hilly, and stony. From this line, which is incurvated towards the N. W. the country is mountainous; the mountains rising in parallel terraces, forming chains which increase in height as they advance towards the S.

Productions.] Magnificent forests of tall trees are scattered over the face of the country from Badagry to Soccatoo. The palm, the cocoa, the tamarind, the banana, the fig, the date, and the bitter tree, are indigenous. Orange, lemon, and lime-trees, also abound in the woods. Reptiles are exceedingly numerous, but the bites of few of them are attended with fatal effects. The natives hold all poisonous snakes in the greatest dread, and can never be induced to destroy them. Of the insects the most formidable

are the ant, the locust, the musquito, the centipede, and the scorpion. The domestic animals are the camel, horse, ass, ox, pig, goat, and sheep; together with turkeys, ducks, geese, guinea-fowls, and common fowls. Many of the wild birds have rich and brilliant plumage.

Climate.] The E. winds, which arrive on these coasts after having swept over the burning surface of Africa in all its breadth, create an almost insupportable heat. During the whole year, the heat of the sun at mid-day is most intense. At Senegal it sometimes amounts to 131°. From the beginning of June till the middle of October 16 or 18 heavy rains fall, amounting to 50 or 60 inches of water. During the rest of the year there are heavy dews.

Rivers.] We have already described the *Senegal* and *Gambia* rivers.—The *Rio Grande*, which waters the southern part of this country, has a course only half as long as that of the *Gambia*. It rises in the mountains of *Badet*, in the centre of *Fouta Diallon*, a little to the N. of the sources of the *Gambia*, and running westwards through districts called *Tenda Maie* and *Kaboo*, and the country of the *Biafaras*, discharges itself into the Atlantic by several mouths, opposite to the archipelago of the *Bissagos*. Among its principal tributaries are: the *Dunzo*, the *Tomine*, and the *Coumba*, which latter seems to give its name occasionally to the principal stream itself.—The *Coumba* rises in *Mount Tangue*, in N. lat. 11° 10', and in its sinuous course waters *Fouta-Diallon*.—The *Faleme* or *Tene* rises to the W. of *Kourbari*, in *Fouta Diallon*, and runs N. E. through *Dialon*, N. through *Sangala*, and N. W. through *Dentilia*, *Satadoo*, and *Bondou*, and joins the *Senegal*, after a course of 200 leagues, near *Tafalinga*. This river is navigable as far as the rapids of *Kaynoura*, in 14° 15' N. lat. Its banks are covered with towns, and indigo-plantations.

Lakes.] Among the more remarkable lakes of this country are: the *Cayor*, lying near the borders of the *Sahara*, to the N. of the *Senegal*; the *Panier Foule*, in the kingdom of *Wali*, which in the dry season is transformed into a fertile plain; and the *Dendoude-Thiali*, near the centre of the country.

Capes and Islands.] The principal capes are: *Cape Verd*, the most western point of the African continent; *Cape St Mary*, at the mouth of the *Gambia*; *Cape Red*, to the S. E. of the latter; and *Cape Verga*, S. E. from *Cape Red*.—At the mouth of the *Senegal* is the low sandy island of *St Louis*, a French possession; the population of which in 1787 was 6000 souls. A little to the S. of *Cape Verd* is the island of *Goree*, which also belongs to France. It rises nearly 300 feet above the level of the sea, and appears to have been separated from *Cape Verd* by a volcanic eruption. It is about 600 fathoms in length; and is separated from the mainland by a channel of 1500 fathoms in breadth. Between the mouth of the *Gambia* and *Rio Grande* is the archipelago of the *Bissagos* or *Bijugas*, remarkable for their fertility, and supposed by some geographers to be the *Hesperides* of the ancients.

KINGDOM OF CAYOR.] The kingdom of *Cayor*, sometimes called *Damel*, is bounded on the N. by the kingdom of *Oual*; on the E. by the *Yoloff* territory and *Saloum*; on the S. by the kingdom of *Baol*; and on the W. by the Atlantic. The coast-line of *Cayor* extends from *Saint-Louis* to the S. of *Rufisque*. The population of this territory once amounted to 180,000 souls; but it has been greatly diminished by recent wars. It formed at one time a province of the *Yolof* kingdom. Almost the whole country is covered with a thick forest; it is only a narrow strip

of land around each village which is under cultivation. The soil produces *sorgho*, cotton, and indigo; the tamarind-tree, the baobab, and various species of mimosas, are the most common forest-trees. Adanson brought home no fewer than 40 different species of acacia from this country. The *werek*, or white gum-tree, and the *nebucl*, or red gum-tree, are the most numerous and valuable. They are abundantly propagated on the white and moving sands which form the soil of the countries bordering on the sea-coast, and also near the southern frontier of the Sahara. The environs of Cape Verd are covered with inaccessible rocks, amongst which a considerable body of people maintain a rude independence. The inhabitants of the country at large are Yoloofs, and profess Islamism. They are an intrepid race, armed with bows, sabres, and lances; a few are provided with fusils. The sovereign of the country is invested with despotic authority; but is often opposed by his own generals. The kingdom is divided into governments, each of which is presided over by a *laman* or *fara*; and each village has its subordinate magistrate. The royal residence was formerly at *Cayor*, a town near the centre of the country; it is now at *Makaie*, a place 17 leagues S. from St Louis.—The little state of *Sin*, which joins Cayor on the S., has a territorial surface of 140 square leagues, with a population of 60,000 souls.

THE YOLOFS.] The empire of the *Bourb-i-Yolof*, and the states of *Brack* or *Wal*, *Cayor*, *Sin*, and *Salum*, were at one time united under the Yolof emperor, called the *Barb* or *Bourb*, whose dominions formed the most extensive empire in this quarter of Africa. The Yolof country lies to the S. of the Senegal river, extending as far as the northern bank of the Gambia, and to the westward of Footatoro and Oual.

Physical Features.] M. Mollien, who traversed Cayor and the kingdom of the Bourb-Yoloofs, in 1818, represents the ground as rising imperceptibly from the sea-coast eastward as far as the frontiers of Footatoro. Respecting the interior, the committee for promoting African instruction state that "the soil is mostly sandy, yet fruitful; there are no high mountains; but, taking the course from the Senegal eastward, where the principal king of the Jalofs resides, if a judgment may be formed from the gradually increasing depth of the wells, it is one continued rise. At Senegal, the wells are, in depth, about 20 fathoms; at Worko, the king's town, upwards of one hundred. There, when a well is to be sunk, a whole village, or more, are employed; and as the natives are not acquainted with the practice of walling, and the soil is loose, they are obliged to make the well exceedingly wide. During the operation, several lives are generally lost by the falling in of the sides."

Inhabitants.] Golberry describes the Yoloofs as the most handsome Negroes of Western Africa. They are distinguished from all the other black nations to the north of the line by a fine, brilliant, pure black complexion,—a noble and impressive form,—a character disposed to benevolence,—and a high degree of self-respect and national pride. Their language is poor, but soft and agreeable; it is not spoken by any of the neighbouring tribes. The institution of castes exists among them. Besides the 'good Yoloofs,' as their hidalgos style themselves, there are four resident castes: the smiths, shoemakers, fishermen, and singers. The last is the most despised caste; its members generally speak the Arabic language, and are zealous Mahomedans. Besides these castes, there exists among the Yoloofs a singular tribe of distinct race and language, called *Laobies*, who are said to bear considerable resemblance to our

gypsies. Polygamy is universal. The food of the Yelofs is simple: coo-coosoo and fish and milk are their only dishes. Their huts, constructed of rushes, exactly resemble large beehives; but every Yelof has two huts, —one to sleep in, and the other for a kitchen.

Government.] “The government of the Bourb-Yelofs,” says Mollien, “like that of all the neighbouring kingdoms, is feudal. The monarch, nevertheless, possesses despotic authority, which he owes, like all other African sovereigns, to the great number of his slaves. The country contains more Pagans than Mahomedans. The latter are held there in high consideration, in consequence of the mildness and toleration which they affect. The religion of the pagan Yelofs is pure fetishism: a tree, a serpent, a ram’s horn, a stone, scraps of paper covered with Arabic characters, or any objects equally insignificant, are deities with them In this part of Africa, both Pagans and Mahomedans place their children under the tuition of the Maraboots. The reverence of children for their fathers is unbounded; but they pay little respect to their mothers Two pieces of cotton cloth, one fastened round the waist, the other thrown over the shoulders, constitute alike the dress of the men and the women.”

THE FELOUPES.] The Feloupe or Feloop territory lies to the S. of the mouth of the Gambia, and to the N. of that of the St Domingo river, extending along the Cassamansa and its various branches. The population is supposed to amount to 50,000 individuals, who inhabit about 60 or 70 villages, and seem to be governed by different independent chiefs. Golberry says: “The Feloops go nearly naked, except a very small apron. They bind the upper part of the arms and the part near the wrist, the upper part of the thighs, the knees, the legs, and the ankles, with laces of leather, so tight that the intermediate parts are unnaturally distended. They scarify their face and body, and imprint on them all kinds of fantastic figures. Their hair is very woolly and curly, but longer than that of Negroes in general: they gather it together on the top of the head into a tuft, which stands erect, and is five or six inches in length. Their beard also, which they let grow, they collect and twist so that it projects many inches from the chin. They are covered with *grigris*, (charms.) Their colour is a deep black, but their skin is rough. Their features are tolerably regular, and have more affinity with those of the blacks of India than with those of the negroes. In stature they are small and short, but are strong and nimble runners. Their physiognomy is gloomy, and they are taciturn in their manners. They converse but little with their neighbours, and they are very jealous of their women, who, however, are not handsome. They always carry quivers filled with poisoned arrows; these quivers are placed transversely on their backs, fastened to a strong leathern shoulder-belt. In their left hand they hold a bow, six feet in length, and they carry likewise four or five lances, which they throw with great dexterity. . . . Although savage, dull, and not communicative, their neighbours do not complain of them, and the Feloops pass for good people; but they are warlike, and, if offended, avenge themselves with ferocity. Though the Feloops communicate very little with the factories on the Gambia, yet their intercourse is very considerable with the Portuguese establishments on the Cassamansa and on the other rivers to the southward, as far as the Nuno-Tristao (Nunez); and I have been assured that these Negroes frequent them habitually and familiarly.”

THE BIAFARAS.] “On the banks of the Geba river,” says Mollien, “opposite to Biassao, are the Jolas or Biafaras, whose territory extends

inland as far as Kofi, on the frontier of the Bassas, a nation reported to be cannibals. The Biasaras are indisputably the handsomest Negroes on this part of the coast. Their manners perfectly resemble those of the Mandingoes, from whom they differ, however, in religion and language. They wear large drawers, and a tunic with wide sleeves, and are covered with *gris-gris*. They are intelligent and industrious. The great quantity of cotton grown in their country, enables them to manufacture much cloth, which they sell to their neighbours. Their whole commerce is carried on by the Rio Grande, at Bilola, whither they take many slaves. If trade, by enriching them, has softened their manners, it has deprived them of that masculine courage which is the offspring of poverty, for they are said to be cowards. The continual incursions which the Papels make upon them, incessantly expose them to the loss of the property they have acquired by their industry, but which they know not how to preserve by their valour." Captain Beaver says that the Biasaras exhibit in their persons what might be termed the genteele figure of Africa.

THE BALANTES AND PAPELS.] The Balantes occupy a tract of country to the S. of the Mandingoe territory, and eastwards from that of the Papels. A narrow channel divides their coast-line from the isle of Biasao. They are an ill-favoured barbarous race. A girdle of reeds is their only covering.—The territory of the *Papels* extends from the river Geba to that of Cacheo. They are all Pagans, and of a highly ferocious character. They ride upon small oxen for horses, and their only weapon is a long sabre. Several less numerous tribes, as the *Birames* and the *Mandingoes* or *Manjacks*, are inclosed in the territory of the Papels.

FOOTATORO.] The kingdom of Footatoro is bounded on the N. by the Senegal, which separates this district from the Sahara; on the E. by Bondou; on the S. by Oulli; and on the W. by the kingdom of the Yolofs and Ouallo. It is about 80 leagues in length from E. to W.; and 50 in mean breadth from N. to S. The temperature is very high. The soil is fertile, well-watered, and well-cultivated. Its principal productions are rice and the cereals, cotton of excellent quality, indigo, and tobacco. There are several extensive forests in this region, which are the haunts of lions, tigers, and numerous troops of elephants. The pasture-lands support large herds of cattle and sheep. There are several good iron mines within the limits of this country. Mollien calculates the population at 200,000 souls, chiefly Foola. They are an industrious active race; and carry on a brisk trade with the Moors of Biron and Ludamar, the people of Footadialon, and the French establishment of St Louis. This country has sometimes been called the kingdom of *Seratik*, from the regal title of the sovereign. It has a kind of oligarchical government. Seven of the principal chiefs select a Marabout, in whose name the country is governed, but who can do nothing without the concurrence of his electors, who are said to have used their right of deposition no fewer than three times in the year 1818. Mahomedanism is the religion of Footatoro.

GALAM.] Of the present state of Galam or *Kajaaga*, major Gray gives the following account: "The kingdom of Galam extends from within a few miles of the cataract of Feloo on the east, where it is bounded by Kasson, (about 40 miles W. of the Falemmé,) to the N. Geocer creek, which divides it from Foota. On the S. it is bounded by Bondou; and is at present composed of a string of towns on the south or left bank of the Senegal. It formerly extended several miles in the direction of Bondou, Foota, and Bambouk, but has of late years diminished to its present

insignificant state, in consequence of dissensions among the different branches of the royal family, and the encroachments of their enemies. It is divided into upper and lower: the river Fa-lemmè (small river) is the line of separation. The upper is governed by the *Tonca* of Maghana; the lower, by the *Tonca* of Tuabo; those towns being the capitals to their respective divisions, and neither acknowledging the supremacy of the other; although formerly, and of right, it belonged to Maghana, near which town are the ruins of Fort St Joseph. The succession to the crown is not hereditary: it descends in a regular line to the eldest branch of a numerous family called *Batcheries*, who are the undisputed chiefs of the country. The face of the country is very mountainous, and much covered with wood, a large proportion of which is well adapted to common uses. Its vegetable productions are the same as those of Bondoo, from which country it differs in nothing save its proximity to the river, and its partial inundation during the season of the rains. The commerce, like that of Bondoo, consists in the exchange of the productions of the country for European goods. These are again exchanged with their neighbours of Kaarta, Kasson, and Bam-bouk, for gold, ivory, and slaves, who are in their turn sold to the French vessels from Senegal. Their dress and manner of living are also nearly the same as those of the people of Bondoo. The former is made rather larger, in the same shape; and the latter is more frequently seasoned with fish, with which the river abounds. They are proverbially fond of animal food, which, although arrived at a higher degree of keeping than would please the palates of our most decided epicures, would not be rejected by them. I have seen a dead hippopotamus floating down the river, and poisoning the air with its putrid vapours, drawn to shore by them; and such was their love of meat, that they nearly came to blows about its division. From a state of paganism, these people are progressively embracing the Mahomedan faith; but many still despise its tenets, disregard its ceremonies, and indulge freely in the use of strong liquors. Some towns are wholly inhabited by priests, who are by far the most wealthy and respectable members of the community. There is a mosque in every town, and the times of worship are strictly attended to by the priests and their converts. From the long existence of a state of commercial intercourse (which has been but partially interrupted by Foola,) between these people and the inhabitants of Senegal, arises a degree of respect which is invariably paid by them to all Europeans who visit their country; and although the exorbitant demands of the chiefs for presents (now called customs,) sometimes cause altercations and temporary quarrels between them, they must, nevertheless, be considered as more friendly to Europeans than any other of the surrounding tribes.... Their amusements, animals, household furniture, and musical instruments, are the same as those of Bondoo; but the people themselves are neither so lively in their manners, nor so apparently active in their occupations as those of that country. A Serrawolli is seldom seen to run; a grave and sober deportment, and an apparent indifference to all matters, characterize these people. In stature they are large, and in make more robust, yet less elegant, than the Foola. Their colour is a jetty black, which they are at much pains to preserve, (particularly in the dry season,) by using a profusion of rancid butter. The women are, if possible, more fond of gaudy articles of dress than their neighbours, and will make any sacrifice at the shrine of finery."

BAMBOUK.] The country of Bambouk lies to the S. of the Senegal, 10 leagues distant from its left bank. The kingdom of Brouko lies to

the N.E. of it. On the W. is the territory of Bondou, from which it is separated by the *Falemme* which joins the Senegal at Tafaliga. It is divided into three independent states, *Bambouk*, *Satadoo*, and *Konkoodoo*; each of these has its own chief, but the *seratik* of Bambook enjoys an honorary superiority. The mountains of *Taboura*, which form a chain from 38 to 40 leagues in extent, occupy a considerable portion of this country. Two rivers, both denominated *Colez*, have their source in this chain. The Western *Colez*, the *Rio d'Oro* of the Portuguese, has a N.W. course of nearly 30 leagues; passing Ferbanna, it joins the *Falemme* at the village of Naye Mow. The Eastern, or *Guyamon Colez*, enters the Senegal at Bukaya-Koulou. Golberry estimates the population of this territory at 60,000 souls. The natives are indolent and voluptuous. They appear to be chiefly of Mandingo origin, and have professedly embraced Mahommedanism. The actual government of the country is chiefly in the hands of the *farims*, or hereditary heads of villages, who appear to correspond to the Indian potails, and the Arab sheikhs. The principal production of the Bambook territory is gold-dust. The richest mine hitherto discovered is that of *Natakon*, situated on a hill 300 feet high, about half a league distant from the foot of the *Taboura* chain. The whole of this hill is an alluvial formation, consisting of a fat argillaceous earth, with a quantity of emery sand, grains of iron ore, and gold in lumps, grains, and spangles. To obtain the rich deposit, the natives have perforated the hill in all directions, with pits about six feet in diameter, and from 30 to 40 feet in depth. The mines of *Semayla* are situated about 40 miles to the N. of *Natakon*. The gold is here found in a reddish sandstone, and a species of red marble. There are other gold-mines at *Nambia* and *Kombadyria*. The greater part of the gold obtained from all these mines is exchanged with the Moorish traders for salt.

LUDAMAR.] The kingdom of Ludamar, called by the Moors *Bagnat*, is bounded on the N. and N.E. by the Sahara; on the S.E. by Bambara; on the S. by Kaarta; and on the W. by Djafnou. Its superficial extent is probably about 2100 leagues. The soil is in general sandy; forests and underwood clothe a large part of the country. Apes, antelopes, hyenas, and ostriches abound here. The inhabitants are Foulahs and Moors; the former are a mild and hospitable people,—the latter are cruel and rapacious, as the fate of major Houghton, and the captivity of Park, testify. They are all rigid Mahommedans. The military force consists entirely of cavalry—each soldier furnishes his own horse and accoutrements, and as he receives no pay, must support himself by plunder. *Benouna* is the capital of this state.

KAARTA.] The kingdom of Kaarta extends between Bambara on the E. and Kasson on the W. It is mountainous towards the S. and W.; on the N. a large sandy plain stretches. It furnishes ivory and gold; and is, upon the whole, well-cultivated. Its government is a monarchy tempered by certain popular institutions. The capital is called *Elimana*. This country was formerly in the possession of a people called *Djavarras*.

FOULADOO.] The territory of Fouladoo is bounded on the N. by Kaarta; on the E. by Bambara; on the S. by Gadon; and on the W. by Brouko. It is a mountainous country, and is traversed by the *Kokoro* and its numerous tributaries, and the *Ba-Voulima*.

BROUKO.] The *Kokoro* separates the territory of Brouko from that of Kaarta. Bambook forms the western boundary of Brouko, which appears to stretch about 50 leagues from E. to W.

GADON.] The country of Gadon lies along the right bank of the Senegal. It is a mountainous but well-watered district, and contains mines of gold, iron, and saltpetre.

THE MANDINGOES.] The Mandingoes are a people who are found scattered throughout a large part of Western Africa. In Senegambia, they chiefly reside between the Gambia and Rio Grande, and are called *Saussais*. In Upper Guinea they are called *Soussons*, and are principally collected together on the Sierra Leone coast. The district from which they take their name is the state of *Manding*, which lies S.E. from Fouladeo, and S.W. from Bambara. This country is traversed by the Joliba, and is divided into a great number of little aristocratical republics. The Mandingoes are mostly of a spare make, not quite so clean and of as bright a black as the Jolofs, or Yolofs. They profess Mahommedanism, and use the Arabic alphabet. Their language is one of the richest Negro dialects; and may be considered as the commercial language of Western Africa. Their villages have all two public buildings,—a mosque, and a market. Their cottages consist of a circular wall about four feet in height, surmounted by a conical thatching of bamboos, covered with leaves. Their females are usually treated as servants, and are commonly employed in cultivating the fields, or spinning cotton. Among the Mandingoes, there are two classes of itinerant bards or minstrels, called *jilli-keas*. Unlike the *gaewells*, or bards of the Jolofs, the Mandingo *jilli-keas* are much respected.

FOOTA-DIALON.] The country of Foota-Dialon lies to the S. of a vast desert which separates it from the kingdom of Bondou; on the S. it touches Kouranko; and on the W. is bounded by districts inhabited by the Mandingoes and Biafaras. According to Mollien, Foota-Dialon, properly so called, does not extend farther N. than to the mountains of Tangue; the rest of the country, in the neighbourhood of the desert, obeys a prince who resides at Tembo.

Physical Features, &c.] This region is entirely covered with mountains, the most elevated of which are said to rise in the S.E. part of the country, and to have their summits covered with perpetual snow. The mountains of Tangue on the N. bear traces of volcanic eruptions. All these mountains are granitic, and rich in iron ore. The temperature varies considerably. Hurricanes and earthquakes are sometimes experienced. In the valleys, and along the banks of the rivers, the soil is excellent, especially between Toulou and Tembo. The principal productions are rice, maize, millet, manioc, onions, indigo, cotton, oranges, citrons, bananas, papaws, and carubes. A considerable number of cattle and sheep are reared; and honey and wax are plentifully produced in the woods.

The Foulahs.] This country was anciently inhabited by the *Dialouhas*, who, being vanquished by the Foulahs, gave way to their conquerors, and either retired to other districts, or assimilated with the foreign invaders. The other inhabitants are Mandingoes and *Serraculcts*. The latter, says Mollien, are perhaps the most intelligent and skilful of all the Negroes in commercial affairs. All European travellers agree in describing them as extremely hospitable. The Foulahs trade with the countries on the Atlantic, with Timbuctoo and Cashna. "The industry of the Foulahs," says Captain Lyon, "in the occupations of pasturage and agriculture, is every where remarkable. Even on the banks of the Gambia, the greater part of the corn is raised by them; and their herds and flocks are more

trumerous and in better condition than those of the Mandingoes; but in Bondou, they are opulent in a high degree, and enjoy all the necessaries of life in the greatest profusion. They display great skill in the management of their cattle, making them extremely gentle by kindness and familiarity. On the approach of night, they are collected from the woods, and secured in folds called *horrees*, which are constructed in the neighbourhood of the different villages. The Foulahs use the milk chiefly as an article of diet, and that not until it is quite sour. The cream which it affords is converted into butter, by stirring it violently in a large calabash. This butter, when melted over a gentle fire, and freed from impurities, is preserved in small earthen pots, and forms a part in most of their dishes: it serves likewise to anoint their heads, and is bestowed very liberally on their faces and arms. But, although milk is plentiful, it is somewhat remarkable, that the Foulahs, and indeed all the inhabitants of this part of Africa, are totally unacquainted with the art of making cheese. The heat of the climate, and the great scarcity of salt, are held forth as unanswerable objections; and the whole process appears to them too long and troublesome to be attended with any solid advantage. Besides the cattle, which constitutes the chief wealth of the Foulahs, they possess some excellent horses, the breed of which seems to be a mixture of the Arabian with the original African. With the Mahommedan faith is also introduced the Arabic language, with which most of the Foulahs have a slight acquaintance . . . In the exercise of their faith, they are not very intolerant towards such of their countrymen as still retain their ancient superstitions. Religious persecution is not known among them, nor is it necessary, for the system of Mahommed is made to extend itself by means abundantly more efficacious. By establishing small schools in the different towns, where many of the Pagan, as well as Mahommedan children are taught to read the Koran, and instructed in the tenets of the prophet, the Mahommedan priests fix a bias on the minds, and form the character of their young disciples, which no accidents of life can ever afterwards remove or alter. Many of these little schools I visited in my progress through the country, and observed with pleasure the great docility and submissive deportment of the children, and heartily wished they had better instructors, and a purer religion." M Golberry, who explored the regions of the Senegal in 1785—1787, gives the following description of the same people:—"The legitimate Foulahs are very fine men, robust and courageous; they have a strong mind, and are mysterious (reserved) and prudent; they understand commerce, and travel in the capacity of merchants as far as the gulf of Guinea. Their women are handsome and sprightly. The colour of their skin is a reddish black; their countenances are regular, and their hair is longer, and not so woolly as that of the common Negroes. Their language is altogether different from that of the nations by whom they are surrounded; it is more elegant and sonorous. These Foulahs of the kingdom of Temboo, have preserved in part the religion of the Fetishes, together with the practice of every species of superstition: with this, they mix the religion of Mahommed, which has been communicated to them. The colony of Foulahs, which, under the name of *Foules* or *Poules*, people the borders of the Senegal, between Podhor and Galam, are black, with a tincture of a reddish copper colour: they are, in general, handsome and well-made; the women are pretty, but proud, sensible, indolent, and affectionate. All the Foulahs of the Senegal are zealous Mahommedans. They are intelligent and industrious; but,

from their habitual commerce with the Moors of Zahara; they have become savage and cruel The features of both the Foulahs and the Mandingoes appear to have more affinity with those of the blacks of India than with the Negroes."

Government.] Their government is more republican than monarchical, for the king cannot decide in any matter of importance without the consent of his chiefs. Trial by ordeal—that of drinking poisoned water—is practised. The military force of the state amounts to about 16,000 cavalry. The religion is Islamism.

BONDOUN.] Bondoun lies between the parallels of 14° and 15° N. lat. It is bounded on the N. by Galam; on the E. by Bambouk and the Falemme; on the S. by Tenda and Dentilla; and on the W. by Footatoo, Woolli, and the Simbani forests. Its greatest extent from E. to W. does not exceed 90, and from N. to S. 60 miles. The country is under the dominion of the Foulahs; but the trade is conducted chiefly by Mandingoes. The sovereign of Bondoun often attacks and plunders the adjacent territories, so that most of the frontier towns in these states have been deserted, and subsequently occupied by the Bondoun people. The capital of Bondoun, when Mr Park visited that country, was called *Fatteconda*; but in 1820, the residence of the *almamy* was at *Boolibany*, a small town with about 1800 inhabitants. The whole disposeable force of Bondoun is estimated by major Gray at between 500 and 600 horse, and from 2,000 to 3,000 foot. The revenues of the *almamy* consist of a tenth of all agricultural produce, a tenth of the salt imported, a custom or transit duty on European goods, and an annual tribute from the Senegal company's vessels trading in the river, and from the French factory at Baquelle. The religion of Bondoun is Mahomedan. There are schools in almost every town, in which the reading and writing of Arabic are taught by Marabouts. Gray says the women of Bondoun might vie, in point of figure, with those of the most exquisitely fine form in Europe.

WOOLLI.] To the S.E. of the Yolof country is the Mandingo kingdom of Oulli or Woolli, extending along the northern bank of the Gambia between Salum and Bondoun. On the E. it is bounded by the Simbani wilderness. The face of the country presents gentle acclivities covered with extensive woods. The soil is fertile, and well-cultivated in the neighbourhood of the towns. The population is composed of Mahomedans, who are called *Bushreens*, and *Kaffirs*, or *Sarakies*, that is, 'men who drink strong liquors.' The latter are by far the more numerous, and the government is in their hands. *Medina*, the capital, is a walled town with about 1000 inhabitants who are all Sonakies. A short distance to the S. is *Barra Cunda*, a Bushreen town, with 1500 inhabitants.

Authorities.] Park's Travels.—Golberry's Travels.—Mollien's Travels in the interior of Africa, 4to, 1820.—Gray's Travels in Western Africa, 8vo, 1825.

GUINEA.

CHAP. I.—GENERAL REMARKS.

GUINEA is a maritime district in the S.W. part of Africa, to which various limits are assigned by different nations. The Dutch consider it as extending from Cape Blanc to Cape Lopez. The Portuguese include under the general name, the whole of the coast from Cape Ledo or Tagrin to Cape Negro. According to the French, Guinea lies betwixt Cabo Monte and Cape Lopez; and according to the British, the tract between the mouth of the Gambia and Cape Lopez is called *North or Upper Guinea*, and that which stretches from Cape Lopez to Cape Negro is called *South or Lower Guinea*. Before proceeding to the topography of these two regions, we shall here introduce some general remarks applicable to the whole Guinea territory.

Name and History.] The origin of the name given to this region of Africa is unknown. Some derive it from the Nigritian city Jenne. Leon and Marmol called the district between the Senegal and Gambia, *Geneoa*. Under the reign of John II. the Portuguese established colonies on this coast, and its name has been given to a well-known British gold coin. It is generally supposed that this country was discovered by John de Santarem and Peter Escovar, two Portuguese, in 1471. Some French geographers assert that it was visited by certain Dieppois in 1364, and that the merchants of Dieppe traded with it for 60 years before its existence was made known to other Europeans. In 1604 the Dutch drove the Portuguese settlers into the interior; and since that time the chief intercourse betwixt Europe and Guinea has been kept up by the Dutch and English.

General Aspect.] There are several tracts along the coast of Guinea of a sandy and sterile nature; but the general appearance of the country, from the sea, is that of an immense forest, with a few high grounds covered with lofty trees and thick underwood. The rivers generally run in a very winding direction. The *Rokelle* is one of the most important. Its source is in the Soolima country, according to Laing's map in N. lat. 9° 45', and W. long. 9° 55', at an altitude of 1470 feet above the Atlantic. "It is the only river in Africa with which I am acquainted," says the traveller, "which bears one name from the source to the sea."

Climate.] The whole coast to which the name of Guinea has been given, is represented as being extremely unhealthy to Europeans. This unhealthiness has been attributed to the heat of the day, and the coolness of the night; the former opening the pores of the body, and making it peculiarly susceptible of the noxious dews of the latter. The sea-coasts of this country, indeed, experience the most intense heat that is known in any part of the globe. Near Rio Volta, on the Gold Coast, Isert saw the thermometer at 134° in the open air. Another cause sometimes assigned for the noxious quality of the atmosphere in this country, is the confinement of the vapours in the valleys between the high mountains. This want

of free circulation of the air is calculated to produce very pernicious effects; and is aided in its effects by the fish, which the Negroes lay in heaps to putrefy before they be eaten. The insalubrious quality of the atmosphere is likewise strengthened, by the frequent intemperance of Europeans. A climate, so fatal to Europeans, seems, however, to agree well with the natives. They are in general healthy; and often arrive at an advanced age. The disease which is most fatal to them is the small-pox. They are, likewise, subject to have worms in their legs,—a disease which has been already mentioned as afflicting the inhabitants of Abyssinia. The summer and winter—which, according to Bosman, are here called by the emphatic names of the *good* and *bad times*—consist chiefly in wet and dry seasons. The summer commences with September. The winter commences with April; and is subdivided into two months in which rain prevails, two remarkable for mist, and two for wind. But neither the great divisions of wet and dry, nor the subordinate divisions of rainy, misty, and windy, are invariable. Tornadoes are frequent. The N. and N.W. winds are most common. The E. or trade-winds are only felt within 90 or 120 miles of the coast. In the gulf of Guinea the prevailing winds are from the S.W.

Soil and Productions.] Every writer, who has described the coast of Guinea, speaks of it as pleasant and fertile; abounding in all the necessities, and many of the conveniences of life. The ease with which the earth is made productive, has entailed upon the inhabitants a general character of indolence. The soil is uniformly rich and productive towards the interior.

Animals.] Bosman informs us that bulls and cows abound upon all parts of the Gold Coast. As the Negroes are ignorant of the process of castration, they have no oxen. In some places the African cattle are fat, in others lean; not from the barrenness of the country, but from the nature of the herbs on which they feed. Their flesh is in general tough, and of a disagreeable flavour. In many places the Negroes, from ignorance, or from abundance of other kinds of food more agreeable to them, never milk their cows. Sheep are plentiful. In shape they resemble those of Europe, but they are much less in size; and, instead of wool—which, in this climate, would be an intolerable burden—they are covered with hair. The mutton is almost universally of a bad quality. The flesh of goats, in this part of the world, is more agreeable. These animals are likewise very small. There are few horses. Those of the Gold Coast are small and ugly. This may proceed from the little care that is taken to prevent their degeneracy. Asses are common: and are esteemed to be of a superior breed. Hogs are plentiful; but the bacon is in general bad, except in Whidaw, where it is said to be excellent. Dogs carried from Europe to Guinea speedily degenerate. In a short time they resemble the fox in shape and colour, and their bark is changed into a howl. The Negroes prefer the flesh of dogs to every other kind of meat. Cats do not degenerate; and, though not eaten, they are highly esteemed, as they tend to lessen the number of rats and mice. Elephants abound chiefly in the interior of the country; and supply the immense quantity of ivory which is sent to the coast for exportation. Buffaloes, though scarce, are sometimes seen. The rivers are infested with crocodiles; and the jackal, sometimes called the wild dog, is the declared enemy of every animal which it can vanquish. This country is also infested with tyger-cats, leopards, and hyenas. Wild boars are scarce. Of harts, Bosman assures us, that there are twenty species. The other animals are a species of hares, porcupines, a variety of that creature known by

the name of sloth, several varieties of rats, and different kinds of cats, among which may be reckoned the civet-cat. Several species of monkeys are very numerous; we have already described the *Simia troglodytes*; among many kinds of lizards, Guinea is inhabited by the chameleon. No country affords a greater variety of game, such as pheasants, partridges, turtle-doves, several sorts of snipes, and crooked bills. The feathered tribes are extremely numerous, and several of them display a plumage of the greatest beauty: but many of them have not received names, and few of them have been accurately described. Serpents, scorpions, centipedes, toads and frogs, are numerous, and some of them are of great size. Land-crabs are plentiful. Many species of ants infest the country, some of which are extremely troublesome. "An extraordinary flight," says captain Adams, "of small butterflies, or moths, with spotted wings, took place at Annamaboo, on the Guinea coast, after a tornado; the wind veered to the northward, and blew fresh from the land, with thick mist, which brought off from the shore so many of these insects, that for one hour the atmosphere was so filled with them, as to represent a snow-storm driving past the vessel at a rapid rate, which was lying at anchor about two miles from the shore." Isert distinguished above 20 species of locusts on the Gold Coast. The sea supplies the inhabitants of the coast with abundance of fish, of the most delicate kinds, and in the greatest variety, except during the rainy season, when the weather is too tempestuous to admit of fishing. Coral and ambergrease is procured on all these coasts.

Vegetation.] At the head of the trees of these regions stands that colossus of the vegetable kingdom the *baobab*, the *Adansonia digitata* of Linnæus. The whole of Senegambia and Guinea is adorned with its green elliptic arches. Mr Golberry observed one which was 124 feet high, by 34 in diameter, and 104 in circumference. Among the vegetable productions of Guinea, none is more useful to the inhabitants than the palm-tree. Its nuts, when young, are eaten roasted; and when old, a species of oil is extracted from them, which is used by the natives as part of their food, and is esteemed even by Europeans to be nutritive. From the trunk is drawn a species of wine, which constitutes the common beverage of the Negroes; and of the leaves are made ropes and nets. Of this tree there are four species. The cocoa-tree is plentiful; but the Negroes know not the use of any part of this tree except the fruit. Perhaps the palm has caused it to be neglected. Oranges and lemons, of different kinds, are plentiful upon every part of the coast. The *papaw* tree is common; as is another which bears what are called *cormantyn* apples. Among others we remark the *courbaril* or locust-tree and the *shea* or butter-tree. On some parts of the coast is found a species of grapes; and a species of the pepper plant—the *Cardomomum majus*—is to be met with in some parts of the country. This plant—from which the Grain Coast derives its name—rises in some cases to a moderate height; in others, not having strength to support itself, it creeps along the ground, or twines like ivy around some other tree. The fruit is in the shape of figs, with a thin skin, which when open, presents the seeds, or useful part, in the form of grains, which are nearly of the size of hemp-seed. The sugar-cane and cotton-shrub grow spontaneously; and the indigo-plant is common. It has been said that the nutmeg and the cinnamon-tree grow here spontaneously though in small numbers; the existence of the coffee-tree is also probable. This country, as is well known, furnishes a great number of valuable gums. Tobacco is found everywhere in abundance. The fertility of the soil is strongly indicated,

by the size of many of the forest-trees. Some of the kind called *capet*, being of that magnitude, that Bosman assures us, "their tops are scarcely to be reached by a common musket-shot." It bears a kind of cotton, used for the stuffing of beds; the wood is light and porous,—fit only to be formed into canoes. Many of the forest-trees afford wood of great beauty, and in every respect fit for the finest cabinet work.

The grain cultivated by the Negroes consists of maize, millet, and rice, of all which they procure abundant crops with little labour. The *Holcus bicolor* gives a return of 160 fold on the Gold Coast. They likewise cultivate a species of yams and potatoes, both which appear to be of a peculiar species. Guinea affords many different species of beans; some of them not unlike the garden-beans of Europe,—some growing on bushes like gooseberries,—and some under ground in the form of roots. Many other kinds of fruits and vegetables are produced in these regions, of which an enumeration would be tedious. One of the most singular features in the vegetation of this part of the world is the height to which the grass grows. This plant forms immense forests from 10 to 30 feet in height, in which elephants, boars, and enormous serpents wander unseen.

Salt is in some places of Guinea produced naturally; in others it is made artificially. Gold, in some parts, was so plentiful as to give the name of Gold Coast to a district of the country. It formerly constituted a principal article of the trade of this coast, but is now only a subordinate part of it. Labat saw whole mountains of fine red marble with white veins.

Inhabitants.] We have already described at considerable length the principal physical and moral features of the African Negroes. A few additional traits of character belonging to the Negroes of Guinea may be here introduced. The native of Guinea considers all his women as his slaves, who must compensate, by their labour, for the price expended in their purchase. Among a number of wives, however, it is difficult to imagine that some one shall not obtain a greater than ordinary share of her husband's affection. This we find to be, in reality, the case; a Guinea Negro has generally one wife for whom he evinces a special regard. Of this wife he is extremely jealous, and the rest of his wives are considered as being in some measure subordinate to her. In Guinea, a woman, when with child, is much honoured by her husband. In some places circumcision is practised, though the natives nowhere pretend to give any other reason for the practice than that it was the custom of their ancestors.

The government of the greater number of the states upon the coast is vested in the hands of a king; and, in that case, it is generally absolute. Among some of the tribes the government is republican, or rather aristocratical. Murder is punished with death, or the imposition of a fine, proportioned to the value of the life of the person murdered. Robbery or theft, besides the restoration of the goods, subjects the person to a fine, not in proportion to the magnitude of the crime, but in proportion to the wealth of the delinquent.

Until the Negroes of this part of Africa had frequent intercourse with Europeans, their arms consisted of bows and arrows, spears resembling the assaiges of the Hottentots, and shields made of wicker-work and covered with the skins of wild beasts. The bow and arrows are now exchanged for the musket. Their wars are frequent and often originate in very frivolous causes. The quarrel of an individual often becomes the quarrel of his tribe; but a single campaign generally determines the dispute.

The medical skill of the natives of Guinea is confined to the knowledge

of the virtues of a few simples. These they often apply in contradiction to the opinions of Europeans; and often, it is said, with astonishing success.

Religion.] "The religion of the natives of Guinea is not easily described. They have some notion of a Supreme Being; but their worship consists in a mass of strange and unmeaning superstitions, of which they do not attempt to give any account. They do not generally engage in any external worship; and though, on certain days, they abstain from their ordinary employments, they have no reason to assign, except that it has been the custom. In some places there is an annual sacrifice of a deer to the divinity. They seem to hold the moon in greater veneration than the sun, and welcome her appearance with great rejoicings. Their system of belief, however, is little else than a constant fear of some malignant influence, and a superstitious confidence in certain charms to avert the dreadful evil. Their object of worship, whatever it be, bears the undefinable name of *fetiche*, a word which some suppose to be derived from the Portuguese *feticho*, witchcraft; but which is applied with great latitude to any thing sacred, prohibited, unlucky, or unaccountable, and is considered as equivalent to the 'Obi' of the West Indies, perhaps also to the 'Taboo' of the South Sea islands. In Acra, the principal image, or deity, is a large mass of solid gold in the form of a human head. In the Fantee capital, Abrah, their chief object of adoration, is denominated Woorah, woorah! Agah, nannah! that is, 'Master, master! Father of all' But every town or village has its own favourite idol, and even in every house is some object emblematic of a divinity. The Fetiche men or women, who are considered as alone possessed of any knowledge, are not only the priests, but also the lawyers and physicians of the country. They are supposed to have communication with the demon, or Fetiche, and to be able to instruct their votaries in every case of actual or apprehended evil. Their good offices must be procured by presents, which are often of considerable value, and are appropriated to their own use. They are usually connected with persons in power, and are frequently useful in enforcing the authority of the laws. Where there is no monarch, and the government is lodged in the community, these persons assume great consequence, and render it hazardous for any one to withstand their influence, or to be guilty of any neglect towards the Fetiche." To enumerate all the absurdities, to which the priests of Guinea have given the name of religion, is impossible. They differ in every tribe, and with every priest. Religious exercises are frequent. Every man dedicates one day in the week to the honour of his tutelar divinity, on which he drinks no palm-wine till sunset. Public acts of religion accompany every public disaster. Inundations, droughts, and famine, always procure from the priests an injunction to perform some general religious act: and this injunction never fails of meeting with a ready obedience. The division of time into weeks of seven days, seems to have prevailed among the Negroes before they had any intercourse with the Europeans, since the different days are distinguished by significant names in the language of the Negroes. On the seventh day they desist from the labour of fishing, but no other occupation is interrupted. From their funeral ceremonies it has been inferred, that their conceptions of futurity are analogically formed, from their notions of present excellence and enjoyment. It is not to be supposed that the numerous tribes inhabiting the coast of Guinea agree in their customs and opinions. So numerous, indeed, are their differences, that a detail of the whole is impossible.

CHAP. II.—UPPER GUINEA.

Boundaries and Extent.] Upper Guinea is bounded on the N. by Nigritia and Senegambia, from which it is in part separated by the Kong mountains, on the E. by unknown districts in the interior of Africa; on the S. E. by Lower Guinea; and on the S. and W. by the Atlantic.

Rivers.] All the rivers of Guinea discharge themselves into the Atlantic. The western half of this country, reaching in the N. to the Kong mountains, presents a general inclination, and is intersected by the *Rokelle* and *Sherbro* rivers, which water the territory of Sierra Leone; the *Menarado* divides this country from the Grain Coast; the *St Andrew* discharges itself on the Footh Coast; the *Assinie*, the *Ancobra* or *Sinnie*, and the *Chama* have their mouths on the Gold Coast. The *Volta* divides the latter district from the Slave Coast; and the *Lagos* separates the Slave Coast from Benin. The *Formosa*, the *New Calabar*, the *Cross*, and the *Old Calabar* discharge themselves into the gulfs of Benin and Biafra, after traversing a marshy country. These streams are supposed by some geographers to be branches of the Joliba. Farther to the S. the coast is intersected by the bays of St John, Gabon, and Assayie.

Divisions.] Upper Guinea may be considered as consisting of the following general divisions:—

I. MARITIME.

1 Sierra Leone and the Timmanee

Country.

2 The Grain Coast, with Liberia.

3 Ivory Coast.

4 Gold Coast.

5 Slave Coast, or Whidah.

6 Benin, with Avissie and Koaie.

7 Calabar, with Wari.

8 Biafra.

9 Gabon and Calbongos.

II. INTERIOR.

1 Kooranko.

2 Kong.

3 Dagomba and Killinga.

4 Sarem.

5 Buntakoo.

6 Ashantee, or Ghunja.

7 Dahomey.

8 Eynos.

I. MARITIME DISTRICTS.

1st. SIERRA LEONE.] When the Portuguese first explored this part of the African coast, they called the promontory to the S. of the present settlement Cape Ledo, and the mountains in the interior *Sierra Leone*, or 'the mountain of the Lioness.'

History.] The Portuguese were the first Europeans who formed settlements on the Sierra Leone river; they were afterwards followed by several other European nations. The idea of establishing a free Negro settlement at Sierra Leone was first suggested in 1783, but was vehemently opposed by the West India planters. After considerable vexation and disappointment, a colony was organized here by the friends of Africa in 1787, upon a grant of land obtained from Naimbanna, the king of the district, who resided at the small island of Rohanna. Soon after this a company was formed in England for the purpose of trading with and encouraging the infant settlement; but on the 1st of January, 1808, the possession of the settlement was surrendered to the Crown. The present state of the colony is thus described by Mr Macaulay: "It contains about 20,000 free Negroes, who have been collected on that spot from various

parts of the world ; some from North America, some from the mountains of Jamaica, and others from the immediately adjoining nations of Africa ; but the great majority of them consists of those who have been rescued from the holds of slave-vessels, and landed on its shores in the lowest state of misery, debility, and degradation. These liberated captives have attained to various degrees, according to the length of their residence and other circumstances of moral improvement, civilization, and prosperity. They are all living under the protection of British law, which they enjoy as fully as any other class of the inhabitants, being equally subject to its penalties, and equally bound to fulfil its obligations. Nearly the whole police of the colony is administered by them ; and in no part of the world is justice more freely and equitably dispensed, or its decisions more promptly and willingly obeyed. And although the nature of the population might not seem to authorise such a conclusion, yet I can confidently appeal to the calendars and police records, as a proof that, in regard to the infrequency of crime, it may bear a favourable comparison with most parts of his Majesty's dominions. A large portion of the colony are enjoying, and all have access to, the means of moral and religious instruction. Upwards of one-fourth are regular attendants on the public ordinances of religion. They have built for themselves various and expensive places of worship ; some of them are employed in ministering to the spiritual necessities of their brethren ; and a more orderly, decent, and well-conducted people, considering their circumstances, is no where to be found.

" That agriculture has not been sufficiently attended to, and that all the industry they are capable of has not been exerted, is true ; but it is not true, that they will not work, and work diligently, for wages : nor is it true that their wants and desires are bounded by a bare subsistence, by food and clothing. They were all landed in the colony, without a single article of any description in the shape of property, almost naked as they were born. Their hands were their only capital, and many of them scarcely knew the use of these. Whatever property they now possess, their money, their shops, their vessels, their houses, their furniture, are all the fruits of their own industry. The population of the colony has been, and still is, but small ; whilst the demand for labour, both for public and for private purposes, and for the commerce of the colony, has been great. The inhabitants, as free agents, have naturally employed themselves in that way which paid them best ; and if they have, by collecting, instead of growing, the produce of Africa, enriched themselves, and increased the trade of the colony to its present extent, who can have any right to find fault with them for so doing ? The population is now, at length, growing larger than the mechanical or commercial wants of the colony can supply with labour, and the surplus must, of course, resort to agriculture. If capitalists would invest money in cultivating the soil, the people would work for hire : if not, they will be induced, I doubt not, to cultivate it on their own account. Several of the black and coloured colonists are persons both of property and respectability, and are admitted to the tables of the principal Europeans. Some of them have served, with great credit to themselves, and benefit to the colony, the offices of alderman, mayor, coroner, and sheriff ; and their mercantile transactions are of considerable magnitude. Numbers of them are possessed of excellent stone houses, well furnished. Their clothing is equal to persons of their rank in England, and their style of living is respectable."

Physical Capabilities.] " A systematic and persevering attack," says

the intelligent editor of the 'Modern Traveller,' "has been carried on against Sierra Leone, from its first foundation, by all parties interested in upholding the slave-trade or the slavery system; and to their secret machinations, the disasters which befel the infant colony, may be in a great measure attributed. Nor was this hostility without adequate motive. By exposing the real nature of the slave-trade, and the artifices of the miscreants engaged in that infernal traffic, the settlement contributed most materially to bring about its abolition. This offence might possibly have been ere this time forgiven; but, by holding up the practicability of cultivation, by means of free Negro labour, and of Negro civilization, the colony has formed an eye-sore to the West India party, which renders them exceedingly desirous to accomplish its entire abandonment and destruction. With this view, it has been represented as a site altogether so ill-chosen as to be perfectly useless as a naval station; utterly worthless as a commercial dépôt; the soil unsusceptible of culture; as a residence, more destructive than the slave-trade; and as an experiment of specious philanthropy, an utter failure. It would, indeed, be marvellous, if, on a coast remarkably deficient in good harbours, one which the Portuguese, the French, and every other European nation have frequented, and which has hitherto enjoyed the reputation of being the only good station between Gibraltar and the Gold Coast, should prove to be utterly destitute of a single recommendation. That the climate is insalubrious to a European there can be no doubt; but this character attaches to it in common with the whole coast; and compared with the settlements on the Senegal, with Cacheo and Bissao, and the Portuguese factories, with the Gold Coast or with the West Indies, there is strong reason to believe that the situation has greatly the advantage in point of healthiness. With regard to the soil, it is admitted that a great part of the territory is the reverse of fertile. There are round Freetown several small plains of indurated claystone, covered with grass, which no man would ever think of cultivating; and the granite mountains of Sierra Leone are of course not adapted to cultivation. But, 'in the valleys, in the plains up the river Sierra Leone, and below the river Kates, in the highlands, and towards the Sherbro, the land, we are assured by a gentleman long a member of the council, 'is as good and as fertile as in any part of the world, and there is also excellent water-carriage.'" Major Gray, who visited Sierra Leone in 1821, thus speaks of its capabilities in respect to cultivation.

"From the change which has taken place in these villages since I saw them in 1817, I am satisfied that a little time is alone necessary to enable the colony of Sierra Leone to vie with many of the West India islands, in all the productions of tropical climates, but particularly in coffee, which has been already raised there, and proved, by its being in demand in the English market, to be of as good quality, if not superior to that imported from our other colonies. That the soil on the mountains is well adapted to the growth of that valuable berry, has been too well proved by the flourishing state of some of the plantations in the immediate vicinity of Freetown, to need any comment. Arrow-root has also been cultivated with advantage on some of the farms belonging to private individuals; and there can be no doubt of the capability of the soil to produce the sugar-cane, as some is already grown there; but whether it is of as good a description as that of the West Indies, I cannot pretend to say, as the experiment had never been tried at Sierra Leone, at least to my knowledge. The cultivation of all these, with the cotton, indigo, and ginger, could here be carried on under

advantages which our West India islands do not enjoy; namely, the labour of free people, who would relieve the mother-country from the apprehensions which are at present entertained for the safety of property in some of those islands, by revolt and insurrection among the slaves, and from the deplorable consequences of such a state of civil confusion. Those people would, by receiving the benefits arising from their industry, be excited to exertions that must prove beneficial to all concerned in the trade, and conducive to the prosperity of the colony itself.—*Freetown*, the capital of the peninsula is of considerable extent, and is beautifully situate on an inclined plane, at the foot of some hills, on which stand the fort and other public buildings that overlook it and the roads; whence there is a delightful prospect of the town, rising in the form of an amphitheatre from the water's edge, above which it is elevated about 70 feet. It is regularly laid out into fine streets, intersected by others parallel with the river, and at right angles. The houses, which, a few years since, were for the most part built of timber, many of them of the worst description, and thatched with leaves or grass, are now replaced by commodious and substantial stone buildings, which both contribute to the health and comfort of the inhabitants, and add to the beauty of the place; which is rendered peculiarly picturesque by the numbers of cocoa-nut, orange, lime, and banana trees, scattered over the whole town, and affording, in addition to the pine-apple and guava, that grow wild in the woods, an abundant supply of fruit. The Madeira and Teneriffe vines flourish uncommonly well in the gardens of some private individuals, and yield in the season a large crop of grapes. Nearly all our garden-vegetables are raised there; and what with yams, cassada, and pom-pions, there is seldom any want of one or other of those almost necessary requisites for the table. There are good meat, poultry, and fish markets; and almost every article of housekeeping can be procured at the shops of the British merchants."

Population.] "From the report of the Commissioners of Inquiry, dated May, 1827, it appears," says Mr Conder, "that from the original settlement in 1787, to Feb. 23, 1826, the total number of those who arrived as settlers in the colony, was 21,944; while the total population in April, 1826, was 13,020; exhibiting an apparent decrease of 8924. This is brought forward as a specimen of the deadly climate of this, 'mortiferous paradise.' The early misfortunes of the infant settlement, the bad state of health in which the Nova Scotians were landed, the repeated dispersion of the settlers, the effects of the French invasion, and the subsequent insurrections, are deemed unworthy of consideration as affecting the inference to be drawn from this estimate! It is remarkable, however, that, at the end of the first 20 years, in 1807, the total population amounted to only 1871 persons; whereas it now numbers upwards of 13,000. Other causes than the effects of climate, it is well known, influence the high rate of mortality in most of our colonies. The lower class of European adventurers are seldom men of good character; and that of the Nova Scotians and other settlers forced upon this colony, was notoriously bad. Mr Macanley has, nevertheless, given a list of 31 individuals resident at Sierra Leone during periods of 8 and 10 to 25, 28, and 37 years. Of these seven died after a long term of constant residence; the rest are living, or died elsewhere. The greater number of the Europeans who lie buried at Calcutta, died under five-and-twenty, 'cut off in the first two or three years of their residence.' The European population of Jamaica is said to undergo a total change every seven years; that of New Orleans, in half that period: two-

thirds of the Europeans who come to reside at Havannah, die within six months after their arrival; and in some of the Dutch East India islands, the mortality is still greater. Mozambique was colonized with criminals from Goa, as a sentence equivalent to death."

Towns and Settlements.] The inhabitants of Freetown, exclusive of the military, according to the returns of January 1822, amounted to 5643. Since that time they have considerably increased. But, besides the chief town, in consequence of the great increase of population from disbanded soldiers, and still more from captured Negroes who have been liberated, a number of new towns have been founded in different parts of the territory. These settlements appear to have been made in the following order:—*Leicester*, 1809. *Regent*, 1812. *Gloucester*, 1816. *Kissey*, 1817. *Leopold*, 1817. *Charlotte*, 1818. *Wilberforce*, 1812; re-organized, 1818. *Bathurst*, 1818. *Kent*, 1819. *York*, 1819. *Wellington*, 1819. *Hastings*, 1819. *Isles de Los*, 1819. *Banana Isles*, 1820. *Waterloo*, 1820. *Allen Town*, 1826. *Calmont*, 1826. *Grassfield*, 1826. On Sir Neil Campbell's assuming the government of the colony, he formed these villages of the liberated Africans into three divisions. The *Eastern* or *River District* comprises Kissey, Wellington, Allen Town, Hastings, Waterloo, and Calmont: these villages lie to the S.E. of Freetown, along the eastern border of the colony, on the Bunce river, and in the Timmanee country. The *Central* or *Mountain District* comprises Leicester, Gloucester, Regent, (Wilberforce,) Bathurst, (Leopold,) Charlotte, and Grassfield. The *Western* or *Sea District* comprises York, Kent, and the Bananas. The Banana Islands, which are five miles off the coast, came into the possession of the British government in 1819, at which time the population consisted of only a few Sherbroes from the opposite coast, who had previously been in a state of slavery. They have since been used as a place of banishment for such persons as have rendered themselves obnoxious to the civil power by offences of greater or less magnitude, and, of course, exhibit the most unfavourable specimen of the population. It may be regarded, indeed, as the Botany Bay of Sierra Leone. *Kissey*, one of the earlier settlements, takes its name from the mountainous country containing the sources of the Niger, the natives of which are said to be peculiarly savage and degraded. They have no trade, major Laing informs us, except in slaves, which they sell to the people of Sangara for salt, tobacco, and country cloth; and in such a savage state of wretchedness and barbarism are they, that, without the least compunction, they will dispose of their relatives, wives, and even children.

Timmanee Country.] The Timmanee country, which borders immediately on the territory of Sierra Leone, was traversed by major Laing in 1822. Its extent, from E. to W. he computed at 90 miles, and its breadth at 55. It is bounded on the N. by the Mandingo and Limba countries; on the E. by Kooranko; on the S. by Kooranko and Ballom; and on the W. by Bullom, Sierra Leone, and the Atlantic. It is divided into four districts, each having its independent chief. "The character of a Timmanee," says major Laing, "is almost proverbial in Western Africa for knavery and indisposition to honest labour; and that of a Timmanee woman for dishonesty. They are depraved, licentious, indolent, and avaricious. Inhabiting the country near the mouth of one of the principal rivers of the coast, and which, until the last 30 years, was one of the chief marts of the slave-trade, their moral and social disorganization which still subsists, may be viewed as an example of its deep-rooted and pernicious influence."

In many of their customs the Timmanees resemble the pagan nations of the Gold Coast. There exists amongst them a singular and mysterious kind of masonic institution called *purrah*, which may be said to possess the general government of the country from the influence which it exercises over all.

2d, THE GRAIN COAST.] Of the interior of the Grain country little is known to Europeans. This coast extends about 100 leagues from Cape Mesurado to the vicinity of Cape Palmas. The principal streams are the *Rio Junco*, a shallow stream about 500 yards broad at its mouth, and the *Rio Cestos*, said to be navigable by small barks, for 25 miles. The Grain Coast is generally bordered with shoals.

Liberia.] In the year 1817, the Americans founded a colony of Afro Americans, and liberated Africans, at the mouth of the Mesurado river. The district of country which comes more especially within the influence of this colony extends from the river Gallinas as far eastward as the Kroo country. *Monrovia*, the colonial town, is situated half a mile from the mouth of the Mesurado, and already contains a population of above 1000 souls. The first 50 miles of coast from Monrovia towards the N.W. is occupied by the *Dey* tribe, an indolent but pacific race; from Cape Mount to the Gallinas, the country belongs to the *Fy* or *Vey* tribe, whose settlements extend 30 miles inland.

The Bassa Country.] The Bassa country comprises a tract of about 40 miles in length in 10° W. long. and 5° N. lat. Its extent into the interior is not exactly known. The people speaking the Bassa language may amount to about 125,000. The rite of circumcision is practised amongst them. Their houses are generally circular, with mud walls and matted floors. The roofs commence at about 4 feet from the ground, and are carved upon a conical shape, to the height of 20 or 25 feet. The people all live in little villages, or clusters of cottages; in each of which is a headman, who has a plurality of wives. If a native have but one wife, it is because he is very poor. The headman owns all the people in his town. The inhabitants of each town cultivate in common. The men seldom labour, except fishing a little, and hunting: the females and small boys cultivate the land: the men trade, and direct those who are under them. The people wear about a yard-and-a-half of narrow cloth round their loins. The men often wear hats; while the children are not burthened with any kind of clothes, but frequently, like the adults, wear many beads. Leopards' teeth are thought to be very valuable ornaments.

3d, THE IVORY COAST.] The Ivory Coast extends about 110 leagues from W. to E., or from Cape Palmas to Cape Apollonia, is a low strait line, with few bays or islands. *Lahon* is a populous town frequented by Europeans. From this place eastward to Apollonia the coast is commonly called the country of the *Quaquas*. The inhabitants of the Ivory Coast are described, with a few exceptions, as being the most savage and intractable of any met with upon the African coast. Their very appearance is said to be frightful. Their teeth, which are crooked and irregularly placed, are carefully filed to a point as sharp as needles. They allow their nails to grow to a great length, and wear their hair long and besmeared with palm-oil and red earth. Their language is harsh, and scarcely intelligible, resembling rather the cry of wild beasts than the sound of the human voice. Their general character is said to be thievish, violent, and revengeful. The country is populous, but contains no town of importance.

Sherbro Island.] The island of Sherbro lies 6 or 7 miles from the Grain Coast, and is about 22 miles in length, by 12. It is flat and sandy,

but fertile. The banks of the bay are low, not exceeding 20 feet above the sea. Some places are occasionally overflowed by the tide, and are covered with mangroves. Sherbro Bay has much the appearance of the Mississippi, between the mouth of the Ohio and Natchez. The islands are numerous; and, with the main land, present a very verdant and handsome prospect. Opposite to the southern end of Sherbro Island, on the main land, the *Boom* empties itself into the Sound; and the *Bagroo* opposite the northern part; the *Deong* flowing in between them. The Boom is nearly two miles wide at its mouth, the Deong a mile, and the Bagroo a mile and a half. The Boom and the Deong have series of islands, extending up from 20 to 25 miles, and dividing each river into two channels. In the Bagroo, about 21 miles from its mouth, the Robanna flows out towards the north, and rejoins the Bagroo 6 miles from its mouth, forming an island about 15 miles long and 5 wide. To the north of the Bagroo, the *Yal-tucker* flows into the sea; and still further north, the *Camaranca*, which borders on the colony of Sierra Leone.

4th, THE GOLD COAST.] The Gold Coast commences a few leagues westward from Cape Apollonia, and terminates at Rio Volta,—an extent of about 350 miles. On the Gold Coast, are a number of different tribes, having different forms of government, and in most cases different languages. The *Fantees* were the most powerful nation situated immediately on the Gold Coast. Their influence extended from Cape Coast Castle to the frontier of Acra, being a space of about 100 miles, and nearly as far inland, to the frontiers of Ashantee. The Fantees were originally subject to that power, but shook off the yoke, and were able to maintain their independence till within the last few years. Since 1811, the power of the Fantees has been almost annihilated by the repeated and formidable invasions of the Ashantees. Their form of government was republican.—*Axim* is a Dutch settlement. *Elmina* is the head-quarters of the Dutch. Its population is said to amount to 15,000 souls. About 9 miles from Elmina is *Cape Coast Castle*, the principal British fort and settlement in this quarter. The fortresses at present garrisoned in this quarter by the British are four in number, and extend from W. to E. in the order they are here enumerated, viz. Dix Cove, Cape Coast Castle, Anamaboa, and Acra; of these Cape Coast Castle is the most considerable, in point of appearance and strength, but the most valuable in point of trade are Anamaboa and Acra; the latter is by far the most desirable of any of our possessions as a situation for troops, having in its rear a fine healthy open country of several miles in extent. *Acra* is a state about 26 miles in length, and about 20 in breadth. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade, both with Europeans and with the interior. Their government is aristocratic, with a mixture of democracy. *Aquapim* is situated in the interior, immediately behind Acra, and to the west of the Fantee country. The government is an absolute monarchy, and the inhabitants pay the most implicit obedience to their sovereign. Agriculture is their principal employment, and their exports consist chiefly of the produce of the soil, for which they receive in return salt, dried fish, gunpowder, iron, guns, and cotton-manufactures. *Aquamboe* is situated in the interior, immediately behind Aquapim, from which it is separated by the Volta. It extends 20 miles along the banks of that river, and 100 miles inland. In the time of Bosman it was the most powerful state on the Gold Coast, and almost all the others were its subjects or tributaries. This pre-eminence which it formerly possessed, now indisputably belongs to Ashantee. The king exercises the most despotic

authority over his subjects, which has given rise to a saying, that in Aquamboe there are only two classes, the royal family and their slaves. The inhabitants are not so industrious as those of Aquapim; and though the country is fertile, scarcely supply themselves with grain.

5th, THE SLAVE COAST.] This district extends from Rio Volta to Rio Sagos, which separates it from Benin. It contains the following districts or provinces: *Kobo, Quilla, Popo, Ardrah, and Whidah*. The latter is the most fertile region, and contains a populous town named *Sabi* or *Xavier*. Whidah and Ardrah have long been subject to the king of Dahomy. Whidah is inhabited by a race, of a disposition in many respects different from that ascribed to the inhabitants of some other parts of Guinea. Even slave-merchants, who seem unwilling to allow to Negroes any virtue, have been obliged to confess that those of Whidah are not only a harmless, but an obliging, and in some degree a polite nation. The salutations of equals consist in falling upon their knees, clapping together their hands, and wishing each other a good day. When a Negro of Whidah meets his superior he falls upon his knees, kisses the ground thrice, and clapping his hands wishes him a good day. The superior, likewise, claps his hands, and returns the salutation. When a person of rank sneezes, he is saluted by all his inferiors who happen to be in his company. To politeness and civility, the Negroes of Whidah add the more substantial virtue of industry. Men, women, and children, are incessantly employed in the labours of cultivation, and in such manufactures as are common in that country: among which may be enumerated cotton-cloth, domestic utensils, and arms. Cultivation and the arts have been carried to a higher degree of perfection here, than in any other part of Africa that has yet been explored by Europeans. The vast woods, which give to the other parts of the African coast the appearance of one continued forest, are here cut down, and only little groves and copses remain to embellish and variegate the cultivated fields. The whole country,—sloping gently upwards from the sea,—covered with luxuriant and perpetual vegetation,—and enlivened by innumerable villages embosomed in trees, presents to European navigators the aspect of a terrestrial paradise. Snakes of a particular species are highly venerated, and very generally objects of worship. The sea is likewise considered as a deity; and when European ships arrive seldom, or when the fishery has been unsuccessful, offerings are thrown into it, to appease its supposed wrath. The government was monarchical, and nearly absolute; but the *caboccers*, or nobles, formed a council which claimed some share in the administration. It is now governed by a viceroy under the king of Dahomy.

6th, BENIN.] This kingdom extends along the northern coast of the Gulf of Guinea. Its limits are imperfectly known, but it appears to comprehend the coast-district from Lagon to Formosa. Its tributary states are those of *Avissie* and *Kosie*. The whole extent of coast is thickly indented with arms of the sea, which form numerous islands; and it has been suggested by a modern geographer that the surrounding canals may form the mouth of some great river whose existence has not yet been fully ascertained. The climate of the coast is extremely unhealthy. The religious rites of the inhabitants are cruel and disgusting. The government is despotic, and the monarch confers a kind of knighthood by presenting his favourites with a coral necklace, which they wear as the badge of their dignity.—The town of Benin is situated upon the right bank of the Formosa. Almost nothing is known regarding it.

7th, CALABAR.] The *Old Calabar* river joins the Cross near the limits of Benin and Biafra; the Calabar coast is generally understood to extend from this river on the E. to the mouth of the Formosa on the W. The soil is a mixture of red sand and vegetable soil, and produces yams, sugar-cane, and Cayenne-pepper. The huge amphibious animal, the *manati* or the *lamantin* of America inhabits the rivers of Calabar. The native inhabitants are a well-made race; their women in particular are said to be good-looking. The principal districts of the interior are: *Wari* on the W. and *Boring* and *Houat* on the N.W. *Duketown* is the principal trading-place. *New Calabar* is the residence of the king of the country. *Old Calabar*, at the mouth of the river from which it takes its name, has lost its former importance.

8th, BIAFRA.] Biafra lies along the eastern coast of the Gulf of Guinea, to the E. of the mouth of the Cross, which separates it from Wari; and to the N. of the mouth of the Malimba, which separates it from Gabon. In the Gulf of Biafra are the islands of Fernando-Po, St Thomas, and Prince's island.

9th, GABON.] The district of Gabon, on the eastern coast of the Gulf of Guinea, and to the S. of Biafra, stretches from Cape Lopez to the mouth of the Assasie. It is intersected by several rivers, the principal of which are the *Gabon* and *Danges*. Within the limits of this country a number of independent states, and district tribes, seem to be comprehended. The *Calbongas* occupy the northern parts; and between the two rivers we have mentioned are the kingdoms of *Imbiki*, *Kayli*, *Chikan*, *Gaelona*, and *Eninga*.

II. INTERIOR DISTRICTS.

KOORANKO.] Kooranko is an extensive territory, subdivided into numerous petty states. It is bounded on the N. by Limba, Tamisso, and Soolimana; on the E. by Kissi, the Niger, and countries yet unknown; on the S. by the countries bordering on the coast; and on the W. by the Bulom, Limba, and Timmanee countries. It must extend a long distance to the eastward; as the natives of the district through which major Laing passed could give no definite idea of its extent in that direction, merely affirming that he could not reach the end of it in one moon. The Koorankoes, in language and costume, are closely assimilated to the Mandingoes; they cultivate more ground than the Timmanees, and are in every respect a more industrious and intelligent people. They are great dancers. At sunset the drum summons all to the dance. The musicians place themselves in the centre, and the company dance round them at a side step, the whole facing inwards. "I have seen a dance of this kind," says major Laing, "kept up without intermission for two days and three nights, the places of those retiring being immediately and constantly filled up." They have no external worship. Their staple article of trade is cam-wood, which is sent down the Rokelle and the Camaranca, to be exchanged chiefly for salt. They manufacture cotton-cloth. A chain of hills, 60 miles in length, runs through the whole of Kooranko in a N.E. direction. In these hills the natives find iron. Major Laing describes the scenery as occasionally very beautiful. Ascending an eminence called *Sa Wollé*, the summit of which, according to barometrical measurement, is 1,900 feet above the level of the sea, his eye enjoyed a grand and extensive view of nearly two degrees in diameter, interrupted only by a hill to the eastward, with "the lovely *Rokelle* rolling its serpentine course across the landscape

from N.E. to S.W." All the rivulets running southwards through the chain of mountains already noticed collect behind the lofty hill of Botato, and fall into the *Camaranca*.

KONG.] This state is sometimes included under the Nigritian districts of Africa. It lies westwards from Dagomba, and S. from Kaybi. It is watered by the *Voura*. Mungo Park was informed that its sovereign was more powerful than that of Bambara. The chief town, of the same name with the country, is situated at the foot of mount Toulisina, 170 leagues S.W. from Timbuctoo. It conducts a considerable trade with the Ashantees and Foulahs.

DAGOMBA.] Dagomba, or Degoumbah, lies N.E. from Ashantee, to which state it is tributary. It borders also on Soodan. *Yahndi*, or Degoumbah, is the capital. It is situated on the northern confines of the great forest or wilderness of Tonouma, and is reckoned 28 journeys from Benin. Five days N.E. from Yahndi is the great wilderness of Ghoomati which divides Dagomba from Zogho, a district of *Killinga*. Under the latter name are comprised the countries lying between Housa, Dagomba, and Yarriba. The Joliba flows through this territory, which is very populous.

SAREM, &c.] To the W. of the river Tando the country is called Sarem; under which appellation are comprised the kingdoms of *Ghaman*, *Banna*, *Takima*, *Soko*, *Ghofan*, and *Enkasi*. This group of states occupies the region S.E. of the Mandingoe territory, having on the W. or N.W. a mountainous district called *Ganowa*.

BUNCATOO.] The extent or line of the Buncatoo country is not at all understood or determined: all that is known is, that it is situated to the N. and W. of the Ashantee dominions. It is, however, well-ascertained that nearly all the gold brought to the coast by the Ashantees is collected in the Buncatoo country. Bows and arrows and rude tomahawks are the only weapons of the Buncatoos, who are a mild and inoffensive people.

ASHANTEE.] The kingdom of Ashantee, the *Asiante* of D'Anville, is bounded on the N. by the states of Moisan, Takima, and Coransa; on the N.E. by that of Bourroom; on the E. by Amiena, Akim, and Assin; on the S. by Tufel; and on the W. by Damkara and Sawi. We may regard all these states as tributaries of this kingdom.

History.] This kingdom, the name of which, till very lately, had scarcely reached Europeans, seems to be the most powerful, commercial, and civilized, of any on the western coast of Africa. Events of a disastrous nature, have lately brought this people more under the notice of Europeans. In 1806, two chiefs who had been tributary to Ashantee revolted; and, being totally defeated, sought refuge in the Fantee country. The king of Ashantee pursued them, but professed to have no hostile intentions against the Fantees. The latter, however, joined their forces to those of the fugitive chiefs, but soon found themselves to be no match for this new enemy; victorious in every encounter, the Ashantees took possession of Abrah, the capital of Fantee. From this period they gradually extended their influence over the surrounding territories, until they at last came into collision with the British settlements. It appears that in the year 1819, a misunderstanding arose relative to an article in a treaty of peace negotiated by Mr Bowditch in the year 1817 with the king of Ashantee. The misunderstanding which existed, together with the imprudent and insolent conduct of the people of Cape Coast, led to a suspension of intercourse between its inhabitants and the Ashantees, who

appeared very undecided as to their future intentions. At this period (the beginning of 1821) an act combining at once the greatest atrocity, and utmost contempt for the authorities of Cape Coast Castle, was committed by a party of Fantees stationed at a town near an abandoned Dutch fort, called Mouree, in the seizure of a native, who had for many years lived under the protection of the castle, and in the subsequent inhuman murder, by the severest torture, of the unfortunate man at the above-mentioned place. Mr Smith, on being apprised of this horrible act, indignant at the contempt shown to the British flag, and acting at once upon the first impulse of his feelings, despatched an armed force to Mouree with orders to secure the perpetrators of the murder, but the party in the execution of this duty being fired upon by the Fantees, was necessitated in self-defence to return the compliment, when an action ensued, which terminated in the defeat of the Fantees, and the death of Payntre their chief. About the close of the action, Prince Adoom, an Ashantee chief, who was encamped with a force in the vicinity of Cape Coast, waiting the order of recall from his sovereign, made his appearance and assumed a threatening attitude; but after mutual explanations the king of Ashantee replied, in answer to the communication made to him on the subject, that he entirely approved of the method which had been resorted to for the punishment of the effence committed. After this explanation with the king of Ashantee, his people visited the settlements of Anamaboa and Acra, as usual, for the purposes of trade, and although Cape Coast was, from a kind of jealousy or suppressed hostility, shut out from participating in any mercantile advantage with the interior, yet there was no demonstration of hostility on either side, nor was there, subsequent to the Mouree affair, till August 1823, an Ashantee force within 100 miles of the Coast. Affairs were pretty nearly in this situation when, in the month of April 1822, Sir C. M'Carthy took possession of the forts on behalf of the crown. Sir Charles seems to have come to a rather precipitate conclusion that the Ashantees were by no means so formidable a race as had been represented, and that by a steady and firm line of conduct, with the means in his possession, he might check their overgrown authority, and obtain for himself sufficient influence on the coast, to bring about those improvements among the surrounding tribes, in agriculture, commerce, and civilization, which he was ever anxious to promote and encourage; yet he committed a grand error in not sending to assure the king of Ashantee of his friendly and pacific intentions.

The nations on the Gold Coast appear of rather a more intelligent cast than any other tribes bordering upon our possessions in Africa; and they soon comprehended the nature of our policy, as explained by Sir Charles Macarthy, who was looked upon by them as their deliverer, both from internal and foreign oppression; the name of M'Carthy rang along the coast from Cape Apollonia to the mouth of the Volta, and the great influence which he gained over these people, (the hitherto-acknowledged subjects of the king of Ashantee,) was viewed with silent and gloomy indignation by that monarch, whose pride was not only stung at the sudden revolt of his subjects, acknowledged as such by British treaty, but at the neglect of his authority and dignity on the part of the British, in not sending to him a complimentary embassy. The Ashantees are by no means a hasty people in their resolutions, and never engage in any thing rashly. They have been known to take three years in making preparations for a war, previous to the declaration of hostilities, such is their caution and calculation against defeat. From this uncommon prudence of theirs, Sir C. M'Carthy was

allowed to make arrangements, and to quit the coast for a time, perfectly satisfied with the appearance of prosperity exhibited by the happiness and contentment of the natives with whom he held intercourse, and utterly unconscious of the hostile intentions of the monarch of Ashantee, as Ashantees, though not men of any note, visited the settlements as traders. During his absence, the impending storm burst, by the seizure, on the part of the king, in the month of August 1822, of a British serjeant, under some trivial pretence. This man was carried off to a Fantee town, named Donquah, about 18 miles inland from Anamaboa, and was detained there a prisoner with an intention of finding out (as was afterwards learned) what part we should act in the endeavour to recover him. Sir Charles instantly returned to the Gold Coast, but was quite undecided how to act; he was unwilling to proceed to hostilities without knowing the real intentions of the Ashantees,—and negotiation was impracticable, unless attended with considerable risk, for all intercourse between the Ashantees and the settlements had ceased since the seizure of the serjeant. At last, while in this uncertainty, news arrived that the serjeant had been beheaded at Donquah on the 1st of Feb. 1823. An armed expedition to Donquah was now despatched, and the united forces of the Ashantees and Fantees defeated. The Ashantee monarch, however, nothing dismayed by the fortune of war, busied himself, by means of emissaries, in an attempt to intimidate our allies; he sent to one, advising him sarcastically to arm the fishes of the sea; to another, he intimated his intention of carrying the terror of war into his country with such alarming sounds, that he would awake his father from the silent grave; and to Sir Charles M'Carthy he sent his compliments, with a threat of soon having his head as an ornament to the great war-drum of Ashantee! He also acknowledged the murder of the serjeant, and directed the messenger to say, he had seen the knife with which it was perpetrated. To the Fantees, generally, he threatened extermination; he advised them to be on their guard, for he could talk over the white men whenever he pleased, and then come down upon them. In the beginning of June 1823, Sir Charles left Cape Coast on a tour of inspection to the Gambia and Sierra Leone. During his absence captain Laing marched against the Ashantees, and repeatedly defeated them. The arrival of Sir Charles M'Carthy, on the 28th November, preceded by a detachment of white troops from England, did not infuse that spirit which every one had anxiously looked for. The natives had fancied to themselves that their great governor would have brought with him a ship load of guns, with an overwhelming host of white men; and their disappointment may be conceived when he was seen to disembark from the colonial schooner with only two or three attendants; their chagrin was so great, that they went so far as to speak of it openly, and they did not scruple to acquaint Sir Charles, at Christmas, when he visited the camp at Yancoomassie, that they were told he had arrived in a small canoe and brought with him seven guns and a pistol! "About this period," says the intelligent writer to whom we are indebted for this sketch of the Ashantee war, "it was currently believed among the white part of the population, that an attack would be made on Coomassie by Sir Charles, and the attempt was viewed generally as one of no great difficulty, but of comparative certainty. Admitting, however, that the destruction of that capital was an easier matter than it was even conceived to be—admitting that the British arms had succeeded in razing it to the ground—the result, in point of colonial interest and effect, would have been trifling compared with that which might have been

derived from negotiation, at a period when we had been successful—when we could walk individually in perfect security any where within 50 miles of the coast—and at a time when the king of Ashantee was sacrificing eight or ten virgins daily to induce his *fetische* to avert the destruction which appeared to stare him in the face!!! Nothing could have been more favourable than the aspect of affairs at this moment, and the advantages likely to arise from a negotiation were pointed out to Sir Charles M'Carthy by an individual, whom it would be invidious to mention here, as the general cry was for war; and, from the attention with which his excellency received the suggestion, it is fully believed by the writer of this narrative that he would have acceded to it, had his mind been made up to pursue any particular line of procedure, before the reported approach of an overwhelming force of Ashantees compelled him to decide upon opposing them, with what degree of success the public are already sufficiently acquainted." All the troops in the castle, with all the civil servants capable of bearing arms, were collected,—hastened to meet the enemy,—and returned no more.

Rivers.] Ashantee is watered by the *Tando* in the N.W.; by the *Ofm* in the centre, S. from Coomassie; and by the *Dah*, which rises to the E. of Coomassie, in the S.W.

Productions.] Ashantee from N. lat. 7° 30' to the coast is described by M. Dupuis as 'a solid rampart of vegetation,' extending E. and W. from Aquapim to Ashantee. The productions of this country are more ample than varied. Lions are numerous on the northern frontiers; elephants abound in the Kong districts; baboons, hyenas, antelopes, stags, small horses, the rhinoceros, and hippopotamus have been enumerated among the animal species. The sugar-cane, rice, the butter-tree, papaws, ananas, and bananas, are cultivated.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The Ashantees weave and dye cotton with considerable dexterity, and these stuffs form their staple articles of commerce; they also send gold-dust and vegetable-butter to the Gold Coast. They likewise trade with the countries to the north of them. It is upon Ashantee that the commerce of this coast rests almost exclusively. A remarkable circumstance is, that the first notice of its importance in this respect, was derived from the opposite extremity of Africa. Mr Lucas, in 1792, heard it mentioned at Tripoli as the goal of a caravan-route of more than 2,000 miles across the broadest diagonal of the continent. The earlier accounts from the coast, indeed, describe the gold and ivory, which form its staples, as drawn from Dinkira, and other intermediate countries; but it is now ascertained, that the bulk of these articles come from beyond even Ashantee, though without its being possible to avoid passing through that kingdom, in its present extended state. Palm-oil also, an article of growing importance, is chiefly furnished from the immense forest extending from the frontier to Coomassie.

Population.] The population of this kingdom certainly exceeds 1,000,000; but this applies only to the original Ashantee, not including its tributary nations, which exceed 22 in number. The men are well-made, but less robust than the Fantees. Their physiognomy and laws reminded Bowdich of the ancient Egyptians; and, comparing this circumstance with their traditions, this traveller is of opinion that they are descended from a mixed body of Ethiopians and Egyptians who may have been driven from their primitive seats by some of the numerous political convulsions of that part of Africa. Their religion is a mixture of Islamism

and Paganism. The diabolical custom of immolating human victims, as a part of the funeral rites of all persons of consequence, prevails amongst them. Mr Bowdich tells us that the present king of Ashantee, a very 'amiable and benevolent sovereign,' on the death of his mother devoted 3000 victims to 'water her grave,' 2000 of whom were Fantee prisoners, and the rest levied in certain proportions on the several towns. Suicide is frequent among the Ashantees, but is held in such abhorrence among the Fantees, that a family considers it one of the greatest misfortunes that can happen to it, when one of its members is guilty of the crime. The eldest son of a wealthy native of Anamaboa hanged himself, which caused the principal members of his family to shut themselves up in their houses for some time. When an English officer inquired why he had hanged himself, the natives answered *abuddam*, he was a madman.

The Ashantees, high and low, neither read nor write. Sai Tootoo Quanim, *his mark*, is the only guarantee of the most solemn treaties. This illiterate condition, however, is not incompatible with a considerable development of intellect and fancy. All the nations on the coast have a great memory, a fluent and graceful oratory, with some talent at improvisatory poetry; and in all these finer arts, the Ashantees display a superiority. Their habitations, though still rude, are decidedly superior in cleanliness, neatness, and a certain degree of comfort, to those on the coast. Their cloths, woven of cotton mixed with silk, and some other ornamental articles, are positively fine; though their manufacturing industry is on the whole inferior, not only to that of Europe, but of some countries on the Niger.

Government.] The government of this country, although monarchical and despotic in spirit, partakes considerably of aristocratical forms. A supreme council seems to conduct all political intercourse with foreigners. There is a great deal of pomp and parade about the court. On the occasion of Bowdich's mission, the councillors, caboceers, and captains appeared all seated under their umbrellas of scarlet or yellow cloth, silks, shawls, cotton of every glaring variety, and decorated with carved and golden pelicans, panthers, baboons, crescents, &c. on the top; their shape generally that of a dome. Distinct and pompous retinues were placed around with gold elephant-tails to keep off the flies, gold-headed swords, embossed muskets, and many other splendid novelties, too numerous for insertion. Each chief was supported by the dignitaries of his own province, to his right and left, and it was truly *concilium in concilio*.

Language.] The Ashantee language is the softest and most harmonious dialect spoken on the Gold Coast, abounding in vowels, and being destitute of aspirates. Like some of the dialects of North America, it is often highly figurative. Tone constitutes an essential part of this language, as it does in that of the Chinese: many words vary their signification according to the tone of the speaker. The language, with the exception of a few terms, is original, and very inartificial. There are no articles, no inflections of nouns and pronouns, no derivative adverbs. All the languages are fundamentally one; but the Ashantee is considered by Mr Bowdich as the Attic among the dialects of Western Africa.

Coumassie.] The capital of Ashantee is a town of considerable size, situated in N. lat. 6° 34' 50", 200 leagues W. from Benin. Bowdich estimates the population at 18,000 souls. The palace is a magnificent edifice.¹

¹ This building consists of a variety of oblong courts and regular squares, the former presenting arcades along one side, some of round arches symmetrically turned, having a

The houses are small, formed of canes wattled together, and plastered with a mixture of clay and sand, and are thatched with long grass.

DAHOMY.] This powerful state probably reaches on the N. to the frontiers of Nigritia; on the E. it is bounded by Benin from which it is separated by the Lagos; on the S. by the gulf of Guinea; and on the W. by Ashantee. The coast district is usually called the Slave Coast. Previous to the invasion of the Eyos or Ayos, this kingdom appears to have comprehended the petty states of *Agoorina*, *Akottim*, *Anagoo*, *Ardra*, *Augwa*, *Badagri*, *Gamba*, *Jaboo*, *Juda* or *Wydah*, *Kenapay*, *Mahi*, *Tadoo*, *Tetaytoro*, and *Tawn*.

Physical Features, &c.] Norris, who visited the capital of this kingdom, describes his journey as having lain through a marshy country. The soil is fertile and totally destitute of stones. The principal productions are maize, millet, and other cereales, yams, potatoes, plantains, oranges, citrons, and other tropical fruits, with indigo, cotton, sugar, tobacco, and spices. The wind called harmattan blows in this country for three months in the year; periodical rains and hurricanes are likewise experienced.

Inhabitants.] "The general character of the Dahomans," says Dabziel, "is marked by a mixture of ferocity and politeness. The former appears in the treatment of their enemies, and in the celebration of those customs which have been sanctioned by the immemorial practice of past ages, under the idea of performing a grateful oblation to the deceased: the latter they possess above all the African nations with whom we have hitherto had any intercourse; this being the country where strangers are least exposed to insults, and where it is easy to reside in security and tranquillity." The inhabitants of Dahomy have some obscure notions of a Supreme Deity, but they pay him no homage. As in Whidaw the particular deity of the nation is a serpent, the tutelar divinity of Dahomy is a tiger. Amulets or charms—consisting of sentences of the Koran written on a piece of parchment, in Guinea called *fetishes*, and in some places of Negroland called *saphies*—are in common use, and are believed to possess many virtues. Every fourth day is a market-day,—a circumstance which might induce us to believe, that here, as in some of the countries farther to the south, the division of the month into seven portions has been adopted.

Human sacrifices are common here as in Ashantee. This abominable practice is no doubt stimulated by their gross notions of a future state. A future state, in the estimation of the untaught savage, is to resemble the present, not only in a physical, but in a moral sense. Not only are inanimate objects to be similar, but each individual is to fill the station which he here has occupied. The chief, who expects to be a chief in paradise, naturally wishes to be accompanied by such attendants as may enable him to support his rank with becoming dignity. If his benevolent disposition

skeleton of bamboo; the architraves and bases exuberantly adorned with very bold fan and trellis-work of Egyptian character; they have a suite of rooms over them, with small windows of wooden lattice, of intricate but regular carved work, and some with frames of gold. The squares have a large apartment on each side, open in front, with two supporting pillars, which break the view, and give it all the appearance of a proscenium of the stage of the older Italian theatres; they are lofty and regular, with cornices of a very bold fan-work in *alto rilievo*: a drop-curtain of curiously plaited cane suspends in front, and in each we observed splendid furniture, such as chairs embossed with gold, stools and couches of rich silk, or scattered regalia. The most ornamented part of the palace is that appropriated to the women. Except two open door-ways, the fronts of some of these apartments are closed by panels of curious open carving, conveying a striking resemblance at first sight to a florid Gothic screen; one front was entirely closed, and had two curious doors of a low Saxon arch, and strengthened or battened with wood work, carved in high relief, and painted red.

has procured him the love of his dependants, they willingly quit this transitory scene, to enjoy with their master a happiness which is to be eternal. Should his disposition be less amiable, he generally finds some of his successors sufficiently attentive to the future dignity of their deceased ancestor to despatch after him a competent number of attendants. The royal family, upon some solemn occasions, sacrifice a human victim, 'to water the graves' of their ancestors; that is, to honour them in the estimation of survivors, and augment their dignity by an additional attendant. "In the year 1800," says Mr Meredith, "when a king of Apollonia died, one or two human beings were sacrificed every Saturday until the grand ceremony took place, which did not happen till six months after his decease. On that occasion upwards of fifty persons were sacrificed, and two of his youngest wives were put into the grave. The lid of the coffin was covered with human blood, and gold dust sprinkled upon it, and much gold and rich clothes were deposited in the grave."

In Dahomy the male dress is a pair of cotton-drawers made of cloth manufactured in the country; over which is worn a piece of cloth wrapped round the lower parts of the body. This cloth is sometimes laid aside; and the body is covered with a kind of coat or jacket without sleeves. On the head is worn a hat; but the feet are always bare,—sandals being a mark of honour confined to the king. The female habit consists of several pieces of cloth, wrapped in different forms round the lower and upper parts of the body. Beads and shells are worn on the neck, the arms, and ankles. On the fingers are worn rings of silver, or some other kind of metal. In perforations made in the ears, are hung ornaments of coral, or of shells. Tattooing is practised; though not so much as among several of the neighbouring tribes. The women of Dahomy suckle their children three years. Circumcision is practised here as in Ashantee; but for the period of operation there is no certain rule.

The Dahomans display, in their manufactures, considerable ingenuity. They fabricate cloth of a good quality, and die it of various colours; and are no despicable smiths. Their bellows are formed of two goat-skins into which a musket-barrel is fastened, instead of a pipe. The anvil is a stone; and the hammer a round piece of iron about a foot long. With these implements, they manufacture spears, cutlasses, and other weapons, carpenters' tools, and agricultural utensils. They likewise form bracelets, rings, and other trinkets of different kinds of metals. Of clay or earth are made water-jars, pots for boiling meat, and other utensils of a similar kind.

Government, &c.] The king of Dahomy is a despotic monarch, and exacts from all his subjects, and even from his ministers of state, the most humiliating submission. All the most arbitrary forms of eastern despotism appear to be mild and free, when compared with that established in this State. The greatest lords are allowed to approach the king only lying flat on their faces, and rolling their heads in the dust. This despotism is not founded upon force or terror, nor is it connected with any timid or effeminate character in its subjects, who are the most furious and desperate soldiers in Africa; it rests on a blind and idolatrous veneration for the person of the sovereign, as for that of a superior being. It is a crime to suppose that the king of Dahomy can eat, drink, sleep, or perform the functions of an ordinary mortal. The attempts thus made to inspire the people with reverence for their monarch, seem completely successful. The Dahoman rushes to battle, with the same blind devotion to the cause of his king, as the Spartans formerly did for their nation and laws. Notwithstanding the

object submission of the Dahomans to their sovereign, Europeans are received with the greatest familiarity, each being allowed to salute the monarch according to the customs of his own country. Instead of coin, the currency of Dahomy consists of cowries, a kind of shell found on the shores of the Maldive islands. Two thousand cowries make a *macuta*, or 20 pence sterling. The revenue consists chiefly of voluntary gifts, annually made at a festival called the Customs: with several small taxes upon different branches of commerce. A considerable standing army is maintained; but the king's lifeguard is said to be composed of female warriors,—a circumstance for which it is not easy to account.

Eyos.] The country of the Eyos or Ayos lies to the S. of Soodan, and the N. E. of Dahomy. It is said to stretch to the borders of a great lake, the source of several rivers which discharge themselves into the gulf of Guinea. This state is said to be able to send forth an army of 100,000 warriors. Captain Clapperton was informed while off Badagry, that the distance to Houssa, through Eyo, was about 33 days.

CHAP. III.—LOWER GUINEA.

Boundaries and Extent.] Southern or Lower Guinea stretches between the equator and the 16th southern parallel. It is bounded on the N. by Upper Guinea; on the E. by a country little known, inhabited by the Cassanges; on the S. by Cimbebasia from which it is separated by the Bambarongue; and on the W. by the Atlantic. Its superficial extent may be about 100,000 square leagues.

Physical Features.] The coast of this country, stretching from Cape Lopez to Cape Negro, presents a concave outline with no remarkable bays or headlands with the exception of the two already mentioned, and Cape Padran, at the mouth of the Zaire. In the eastern district of this country a chain of hills runs from S. to N. to which the Portuguese have given the appellation of the *Salt or Crystal Mountains*. On the E. of the chain is the plateau of *Dembo*, rising to the height of 6,400 English feet, and on the N. the *Sierra Complida*. The principal streams are the *Zaire* already described, and the *Coanza*. Both of these rivers run towards the W. and receive a great number of tributaries. The Zaire receives, on the right, the *Bancaor* and the *Eozaddi*, which different geographers have sometimes confounded with the Zaire itself. The *Coanza* is supposed to originate like the Zaire, in a great lake on the confines of the Cassanges territory. It rises N.W. dividing the kingdom of Angola from that of Benguela, and falls into the Atlantic, after a course of 200 leagues, during which it receives the *Cobije*, the *Lombe*, and the *Lucala*, from the right, and the *Cunhinga* and *Catato* from the left. It is a deep rapidly flowing stream, overflowing the country to a great extent during the rainy season, and navigable for about 45 leagues from its mouth. Fifteen leagues above this point it forms an immense cataract. The *Lebrondo*, *Ambrix*, *Loge*, *Anzo*, *Dande* and *Bengo* flow directly towards the ocean, between the Zaire and Coanza. To the S. of the latter river are the *Longa*, *Cuvo*, *Catumbala*, *Capororo*, *Cobal*, and *Bambarongue*, all independent streams. The coast districts are marshy and woody; the climate and temperature of the interior is milder than that of the coast. Vegetation here presents its usual tropical magnificence.

Divisions.] Lower Guinea is divided into 9 countries or kingdoms : viz.

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| 1. Congo | 6. Loango |
| 2. Angola | 7. Mayomba |
| 3. Benguela | 8. Setté |
| 4. Ergoyo | 9. Anziko or Mikoko. |
| 5. Cacongo or Malemba | |

Congo.] Of Congo, as of other things of which little is known, much has been said, and much that is evidently false because contradictory. It was discovered in 1487 by the Portuguese, who sent thither successive bodies of troops and missionaries, and their writers give the most exaggerated accounts of their success. Nothing at all certain, however, was known concerning this country until the recent expedition sent out by the British government to explore the course of the Zaire or Congo; and, from the unfortunate issue of that expedition, the information communicated by its leader, captain Tuckey, is not extensive. It is bounded on the N. and N.W. by the Zaire or Congo; on the W. by the Atlantic; on the S. by the countries of Angola and Benguela; while the eastern frontier is said to be composed of lofty and rugged mountains, inhabited by savage tribes, who make frequent and desolating incursions into the territory of Congo. No European, however, has ever penetrated this part of the country.

Climata, Soil, &c.] Lying within from 6 to 9 degrees of the equator, the heat of this country must be excessive: though from the length of the nights, which are always nearly equal to the days, and from the regular sea-breezes and periodical rains, it is not nearly so insupportable as might be supposed. What of the country was observed by captain Tuckey, was occupied by very small villages, and far from being highly improved. The banks of the Zaire, as far as Embomma, are alluvial, and covered with luxuriant verdure, but chiefly of natural growth. Higher up are bare mountains, from 2000 to 3000 feet in height, composed chiefly of mica-slate, quartz, and sienite; the villages and cultivated spots are situated in the ravines. Farther up still, the mountains open and allow the river to flow in a wider channel. They are composed here of limestone and clay; and the greater part of the surface is fit for cultivation. Summer commences in October and continues till March; winter begins in March and continues to October. The soil generally produces two crops a year. The vegetable productions of this region are ample, and for several of the most valuable, it seems to have been indebted to the Portuguese. The most important are maize, cassava, sweet potatoes, and two kinds of pulse, cabbages, spinach, pepper, capsicum, sugar-cane, and tobacco. Their fruits are chiefly the banana, papaw, oranges, limes, and pine-apples. The first and last being natives of the East and the West Indies, must have been introduced from abroad; yet they are found very high up the country. The oil palm, *Elæis Guinensis*, is common to this country, with all western Africa. The species of ground nuts called *kola*, mentioned by Park, are also abundant. The collection of plants formed by professor Smith, in the late expedition, consisted of 620 species, of which about 250 were absolutely new. The luxuriance of the vegetation of Congo is said to be eminently displayed, in the great numbers of beautiful flowers which adorn every meadow; and—what is somewhat uncommon in the flowers of a warm country—these flowers are described as emitting a fragrance no less grateful to the smell, than their colours are beautiful to the eye. Cavazzi speaks of tulips of an extraordinary brilliancy of colour, and fragrant of odour. He mentions lilies superior both in colour and smell to those of

Europe. Tuberoses, hyacinths, and many other kinds of flowers are represented as here attaining, in a wild state, a beauty and perfection which culture cannot bestow in other regions. It is confessed, however, that many kinds of exotic flowers and plants degenerate in Congo, unless they have the advantage of continual and careful cultivation.

Animals.] Like other ill-cultivated regions, Congo abounds in wild animals, among which are elephants, leopards, lions, buffaloes, large monkeys with black faces, and numerous species of antelopes. There are others, as wild hogs, hares, and porcupines, which an active and skilful people might turn to good account, but they are entirely neglected by the present race of inhabitants. The rivers swarm with crocodiles and hippopotami. No domestic animals are employed in draught or agriculture; but for food there is a considerable supply of goats, hogs, fowls, ducks, and pigeons. Sheep and cattle are scarce. The lower part of the river abounds with excellent fish, particularly bream, mullet, cat-fish, and *sparus*, the latter often weighing from 80 to 60 pounds, and of excellent flavour.

Agriculture.] Congo might, by industry, be made productive of every kind of grain except wheat, for which the ground is represented as being too fertile. The grain of which the greatest quantity is cultivated by the natives is maize, of which there are different kinds. Some kinds of peas and beans are reared; but the inhabitants enervated by a warm climate, and a country which is fertile without culture, are said to bestow little attention on the cultivation of the ground. Agricultural operations are carried on with a rude hoe stuck into a wooden handle; yet with the slight scratching which the ground receives from this rude instrument, it produces excellent crops. The rights of property are strictly recognised; and the division is sometimes so minute, that three or four persons will have a fowl or a pig betwixt them.

Commerce.] European merchants chiefly reside at St Salvador. The imports are either from Europe or Brazil. From Europe they receive English cloth, stuffs, and Turkey carpets, brass vessels, copper, and blue earthen ware; ornaments, and rings of gold, silver, and other metals; light stuffs of cotton, woollen and linen, glass beads, coral, bugles, and other trinkets, with a few tools and utensils. From Brazil are imported fruits, grain, and different kinds of American produce. The exports formerly consisted of ivory, furs, and such articles as the country affords; but the trade was confined chiefly to slaves, until this abominable traffic was put an end to by the treaty between Great Britain and Portugal in 1821.

Inhabitants.] The Portuguese missionaries represented Congo as being extremely populous. St Salvador, the capital, they affirmed, contained no fewer than 50,000 inhabitants. One single province, named Bamba, was said to have furnished an army of 200,000 men: and, in 1665, the king of Congo's army is said to have amounted to 900,000 men. This immense population was represented as subsisting without diminution, notwithstanding the annual exportation of 15,000 or 16,000 slaves. Such an account is evidently exaggerated. The fact is, that the prince who can muster 200 soldiers, and arm the half of them with muskets, becomes the terror of all this part of Africa. These little chiefs, however, acknowledge a certain supremacy in the *Blindy N' Congo*, or general sovereign of the country, who resides at a town called Congo, situated about six days' journey in the interior, and probably the St Salvador of the Portuguese.

The natives are of the middle size, and they have, but in a somewhat less degree, both the black colour and the characteristic features of the African race. Their physiognomy is described as pleasing, and as bearing the stamp of simplicity and innocence. They appear to possess less of energy and reflection than other Africans, and to indulge peculiarly in that indolence which forms the chief bar to improvement throughout this continent. They leave—as is common among all barbarous tribes—the most laborious offices to the weaker sex, who till the ground, search for food in the forests, and catch fish, while the men saunter indolently at home, or at best employ themselves only in working mats.

Society, in Congo, may be divided into the following classes: 1st, The *Chenoo*, or chief, and his family. This dignity is hereditary in the female line; none of the sons of the *Chenoo* can inherit, unless the mother be of royal blood. The *Chenoo* is little distinguished from his subjects by dress or accommodation, and his ensign of office consists of a small staff of black wood inlaid with lead or copper. The daughter of the *Chenoo* chooses her own husband, of whom she is absolute mistress, and whom she can even sell into slavery; so that the royal alliance is little an object of envy. 2d, The *Mafooks*, or collectors of the revenue, who engage also in trade. 3d, The *Foomoos*, or yeomanry, who have houses and lands of their own; two or three wives, and perhaps a slave or two, who work for them. 4th, Fishermen and labourers, who having no property of their own, work for hire, and are much at the disposal of the *Chenoo* or chief. 5th, Domestic slaves are said not to be numerous, and are not considered as transferable property unless guilty of some serious offence. The slaves sold to Europeans are chiefly brought from the interior.

The church of Rome, at an early period, sent numerous missionaries into this country, and long and pompous accounts were published of their success, and the numerous conversions they effected; but the English who lately visited this country did not find the smallest trace of any benefit derived from their labours. In the lower part of Congo, the natives displayed their former apparent conversion only by mixing Catholic relics and *Agnus Deis* with their Pagan fetiches.

ANGOLA.] The kingdom of Angola is bounded on the N. by the Danda river which separates it from Congo; on the E. by Malemba; on the S. by Benguela; and on the W. by the Atlantic. It is divided into 4 provinces, viz: *Quitama*, *Sumbi*, *Dembi*, and *Ovando*. Angola is a mountainous country, with very few plains. The climate is said to be unhealthy. The heat, upon the coast, is excessive; upon the mountains in the interior, it is more moderate. The principal rivers mentioned by the Portuguese—from whom we have learnt all that we know concerning this country—are the *Coanza* and *Danda*. The *Coanza* has been already described. Its current at its mouth is so violent that it makes the sea appear muddy to the distance of two or three leagues. It forms several islands; and one, which lies just before its mouth, prevents it from being seen from the sea. Of the *Danda*, little is known. It falls into the sea 70 or 80 miles N. of the *Coanza*. The other rivers are the *Bengo*, the *Caiaba*, the *Nica*, and the *Catacombola*. The inhabitants of Angola are represented as having been formerly very numerous. They probably are so still; but of their numbers we have no certain information. The dress, manners, and religion of the inhabitants of this country, are not materially different, so far as known, from those of the inhabitants of Congo, to which article the reader is referred. *Loanda* or *St Paul-de-Loanda* situated on the coast of Angola in 13° 28' E. long.

8° 55' S. lat. is the capital of all the Portuguese settlements in southern Africa, and was founded in 1578. It covers a great extent of ground, but is neither walled nor fortified. The white population is estimated at 3000 souls; the number of Negroes is much greater. Provisions are plentiful and cheap; but the water is extremely bad, and must be brought either from a neighbouring river, or from the island of Loanda. This city contains three convents, and is the seat of a bishop.—The island of Loanda is separated from the continent by a very narrow strait; it is about 7 leagues in length, and one quarter league in breadth. Sheep and goats are fed upon it, and the citizens of St Paul de Loanda have numerous country-houses and gardens upon it, the air being reckoned salubrious.

BENGUELA.] The kingdom of Benguela is bounded on the N. by Angola and Malemba; on the E. by a stretch of desert country; on the S. by the country of the Cimbebas; and on the W. by the Atlantic ocean. It extends from the mouth of the Coanza to that of the Bambarougue; that is, from Cape Ledo to Cape Negro. Its breadth is unknown; but it is probably little inferior to its length. The interior of this country is mountainous, but is watered by a great number of streams, among which the most remarkable, next to the *Coanza* and *Bambarougue*, are the *Guboro-ro* and the *Curo*. Elephants, rhinoceroses, zebras, and antelopes, abound in this territory. The cattle and sheep attain an extraordinary size, but their numbers are kept down by the rapacity of the wild animals, the long droughts, and the predatory incursions of the Jagas. Benguela produces rice and salt; and possesses some mines of copper. The climate is said to be exceedingly unhealthy. The native inhabitants are a wild and barbarous race. The Portuguese are the only Europeans who have settlements on the coast; and they appear to have carefully concealed from other nations any information which they may possess regarding this country. The only use which is known to be made of the copper-mines by the natives is that of procuring metal for their bracelets and rings. Benguela is divided into 8 provinces, viz: *Upper Bembe*, *Lower Bembe*, *Lubolo*, *Oacca*, *Quissima*, *Rimba*, *Scela*, and *Tamba*. Its chief town is *St Philip*.

ENGoyo.] The kingdom of Engoyo is bounded on the N. by Cacongo; on the S. by the Zaire, which separates it from Congo; and on the W. by the Atlantic. It is in part covered with forests. The principal plants cultivated are maize, tobacco, sugar-cane, and cotton. The interior commerce consists chiefly in salt, which is prepared at the mouth of the Zaire. The chief town is *Cabinde*.

CACONGO.] Cacongo, or Malemba, is bounded on the N. by Loango; on the E. by Congo, from which it is separated by the Zaire; on the S. by Engoyo; and on the W. by the Atlantic. It is about 50 leagues in length from W. to E.; and 20 or 25 leagues in breadth. It is a mountainous, but fertile country; and the climate is less prejudicial to Europeans than that of Loango. The government is represented as monarchical but not hereditary. Upon the death of the prince or king, the most puissant noble generally succeeds him. *Kingele* is the capital; but the port of *Malemba* is the principal trading-town. The bay here is good; but the climate is very unhealthy, in consequence, it is supposed, of the vicinity of the lake of *Loanghilly*, which lies to the S.E.

LOANGO.] Loango, which formerly made part of the kingdom of Congo, is bounded on the N. by Mayomba; on the N.E. by Congo; on the S. by Cacongo, and on the W. by the Atlantic. Its length is said to be 250, and its breadth 188 miles. According to other authorities, it ex-

tends from N. to S. only 180 geographical miles. Its climate is good; rain seldom falls, but heavy dews support vegetation. The winter-months are May, June, and July, when the nights are cooler, but without being chill. The soil is a red stiff clay, exceedingly fertile; but the only grains cultivated by the indolent inhabitants, are manioc, maize, and a single species of pulse. The mode of culture is slovenly in the extreme: the women merely stirring the soil to about an inch deep, and covering up the seed from the birds,—and even this slight culture is confined to little spots like gardens, situated around the villages. The rest of the country is covered with luxuriant herbs, rising to the height of eight feet, and through which it is almost impossible to pass. These shrubs grow, ripen, and wither, without being applied to any use. The natives sometimes set them on fire, thus producing an extended conflagration over the whole country. On these occasions, the coast, to those who sail along it, appears one immense ocean of flame. Palm-trees are plentiful, and the finest fruits grow wild in abundance. European vegetables attain an extraordinary size, but do not propagate. The wild animals are chiefly tiger-cats, ounces, and hyenas. The hare and antelope are common, and the Chinese hog is used as a domestic animal. Monkeys are innumerable, as also the *termes*, or white ants, a pernicious insect, common to the whole western coast of Africa.

Inhabitants, &c.] The natives of Loango are described as being black, well-made, and of an amiable disposition. Their dress consists of a kind of petticoat, while the upper part of the body is covered with a leopard's skin. The head is covered with a cap made of grass; and the tail of a buffalo is used as a fan to defend them from the mosquitoes. The petticoats of the women are of straw. On their legs they wear strings of shells, and bracelets of ivory on their arms. To anoint themselves they make use of palm-oil, and a kind of red wood reduced to powder, instead of paint. Polygamy is universally practised. A man must purchase his wives, and consequently is not scrupulous in using them as servants. The king—who is said to possess 1500 concubines—receives his revenue in the produce of the country; but his chief wealth is said to consist in the possession of a great number of slaves. The trade consists chiefly of ivory, copper, tin, lead, and slaves.

Divisions.] Loango has been usually, but upon what authority we know not, divided into the provinces of *Lovangiri*, *Loangomongo*, *Chilingo*, and *Piri*. The capital is *Loango*, called by the Negroes *Boari* or *Bouali*. It is situated a little to the S.E. of the mouth of the *Killoo*, and is said to have a population of 15,000 souls.

MAYOMBA.] The territory of Mayomba lies between the country of Sette and that of Loango. Its inhabitants are said to be a mild and intelligent race; they work copper-mines, and carry on a considerable trade in ivory and gum. The slave trade was formerly extensively conducted here. The chief of this district recognizes the superiority of the king of Loango. *Mayomba* or *Yomba*, at the mouth of the Mayomba river, is the capital. It has a pretty safe harbour, but the interior is obstructed by a rock.

ANZIKO.] Anziko, or Mikoko, is a vast unknown tract of country, lying to the N. of the Congo. It is mountainous, and rich in copper. The Portuguese travellers of the 16th century, Lopez and Merolla, affirm that its inhabitants are a brave, active, and industrious race, but so barbarous as publicly to expose human flesh in their shamblers for sale. These travellers add, that they conduct a considerable traffic with Congo, whither

they carry staffs wrought of palm-fibres, ivory, slaves, and skins. Their language is harsh and difficult to acquire; but seems a dialect only of the general language of Lower Guinea. The king of Ansiko resides at *Mousol*.

Authorities.] Adanson, Voyage au Senegal.—Bosman's Guinea in Pinkerton's collection.—Mollien's Travels to the sources of the Senegal and Gambia, edited by Bowdich.—Bowdich's Mission to Ashantee, 4to. 1819.—Hutton's Voyage to Africa, 8vo. 1821.—Macaulay's Colony of Sierra Leone vindicated.—Dupuis's Journal of a Residence in Ashantee, 4to. 1824.—M'Queen's View, 8vo. 1821.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Extent and Boundaries.] The colony of the Cape occupies the most southern portion of the African continent, and forms a parallelogram of 550 miles in length, and 233 in breadth, comprehending an area of 128,150 square miles. According to the survey made by Barrow, the district properly belonging to this colony, is bounded on the N. by a wild country inhabited by the Bosjesman Hottentots; on the E. by the country of the Caffres; on the S. by the Southern Ocean; and on the W. by the Atlantic. The boundary lines cannot, however, be considered as permanent; since it is to be supposed the colonists will, as hitherto, continue to make such encroachments on the neighbouring territory as their interests dictate. In fact, within the last 30 years the frontiers of the colony have been extending in every direction.

Civil Divisions.] The map constructed by Barrow divides the colonial territory into the four following districts: 1. Cape District, 2. Stellenbosch, 3. Zwelldam, 4. Graaff Reynet. In 1810, the extension of the colony, and the formation of new villages, rendered it necessary, for the more convenient administration of the local jurisdiction, to divide the territory into 11 districts of very unequal extent; and the commissioners of inquiry into the state of the colony have suggested that the whole should be divided into two provinces, each distributed into the following districts:

WESTERN PROVINCE.

1. Cape District.
2. Stellenbosch.
3. Caledon.
4. Zwelldam.
5. Worcester.
6. Clanwilliam.

EASTERN PROVINCE.

1. Graaf Reynet.
2. Beaufort.
3. Somerset.
4. Albany.
5. Witenhage.
6. George.
7. Fredericksburg.

History.] Whether the ancients had any knowledge of the southern extremity of Africa is a doubtful point; but the first European navigator, who doubled the Cape, was Bartholomew Diaz, an officer in the service of John II. of Portugal. In 1493 he proceeded to 24° S.; and then, stretching boldly out to sea, never approached the coast again till he was 40° to the eastward of the Cape, which he had passed without seeing it. He then advanced as far as the Rio del Infanta, and returning discovered the grand promontory which, on account of the storms which he had experienced in his approach to it, he called *Cabo Tormentoso*; but, by John king of Portugal it was called the *Cape of Good Hope*, as it gave new confidence to the expectation of an uninterrupted passage by sea to the East Indies. In 1496, Vasco de Gama doubled this cape; and sailed to Calicut in the East Indies. In 1510, Francis Almeida, first viceroy of the Portuguese dominions in India, was defeated and killed in an obstinate engagement with the Hottentots, near the Salt River, not far from the site

now occupied by Cape Town. When this new passage to India was ascertained the trade passed almost entirely in that direction. In 1620 two English ships took formal possession of Saldanha Bay; but of the cape of Good Hope no use was made till 1650, when Van Riebeck, a Dutch surgeon, convinced of the utility of a settlement in a situation which would afford convenient refreshments to ships passing between Europe and the East Indies, planted a colony here. The event showed that Riebeck's views had been just. The utility of the settlement was immediately felt, and it daily increased in magnitude and importance; but the Hottentots gradually receded with their flocks and herds from the vicinity of Table-Bay, towards the N. and N.E. In 1774 the whole race of those unfortunate natives, who yet lingered on the frontiers, and had not submitted to servitude, was ordered to be seized or extirpated by the Dutch government; and a series of *commandoes*, or military parties, were sent against them, who perpetrated the most wanton atrocities on the poor Boersamen. The Namaqua Hottentots, formerly inhabiting the Nieuweweld, the Bokkeveld, and the Roggeveld, worn out by the repeated aggressions of the colonists, retired into the immense deserts stretching from the Kamiesberg to the bay of Angra Pequena on the S.W. coast of Africa; while on the E. the Caffres and colonists constantly came into hostile collision. The Dutch retained possession of this territory till 1795, when a British squadron, under general Clarke and admiral Keith Elphinstone, took possession of it without resistance. It was restored at the peace of Amiens; but Holland being dragged into the war which speedily ensued between France and Britain, an expedition was again fitted out, under general Baird and commodore Sir Home Popham, for the purpose of reducing this important settlement. The British forces arrived in Table Bay on the 4th of January, 1806,—a landing was effected on the 6th,—and after a sharp action on the 8th, in which the Dutch were completely defeated, the British advanced to Cape Town, which immediately capitulated. The surrender of the whole colony followed; and, by the pacification of 1814, this valuable possession was fully ceded to Great Britain.

Face of the Country, Mountains.] The outlines of this country towards the sea are formed by a few prominent points, separated by large sweeps of the ocean. The leading feature in the aspect of the Cape territory consists in three successive ranges of mountains, running parallel to each other and to the southern coast of Africa. The first range, which, at least in a great part of its line, is called the *Lange Kloof*, or 'Long Pass,' runs parallel to the coast, at a distance of from 20 to 60 miles, widening towards the west. The second range, called *Zwarte Berg*, or 'Black mountain,' is considerably higher and more rugged than the first, and consists often of double or even triple ranges. The belt interposed between the *Zwarte Berg* and the *Lange Kloof* is nearly of the same average breadth as that between the latter and the sea, and it is of considerably greater elevation. Beyond the *Zwarte Berg*, at an interval of 80 or 100 miles, rises the *Nieuweld's Gebirge*, or 'Snowy Mountains,' the highest range of Southern Africa, and the summits of which are generally covered with snow. They have not been accurately measured, but are not supposed in their greatest height to fall short of 10,000 feet. The belt or plain interposed between these two last chains is considerably more elevated than either of the two others, so that Southern Africa forms as it were a succession of terraces, rising above each other. The plain next the sea is covered with a deep and fertile soil, watered by numerous rivulets, well-



Painted by J. H. S. S. S.

THE STEAMSHIP, CAPT. J. H. S. S. S.

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clothed with grass, and with a beautiful variety of trees and shrubs. Rains are frequent; and from its vicinity to the sea, it enjoys a more mild and equable temperature than the interior and remoter parts of the colony. The second terrace contains a considerable portion of well-watered and fertile lands; interspersed with large tracts of the arid desert called *kar-roo*. The third belt, called the Great Karroo, is composed of a vast plain, 300 miles in length and nearly 100 in breadth—occupying, therefore, a space nearly equal to the whole surface of Ireland—the soil of which is of a hard and impenetrable texture, destitute almost of any trace of vegetation.

The Karroos.] The plains of South Africa called *karroos* present a dreary listless uniformity of level surface, except where broken by a few straggling hills of schistus or slate, which rise, like little volcanic cones, out of a naked surface of clay, whose tinge is that of a dull ferruginous brown. All traces of animated nature are in the dry season obliterated from these dreary solitudes; and the withered remains of the fig-marigolds and other succulent plants, sparingly scattered over the surface, crackle under the feet, and seem, from the faint and feeble traces of vegetable life, to maintain a perpetual struggle for existence. If, however, some partial thunder-storm should burst upon this desert, the bulbs begin to swell, and the leaves to push through the moistened clay,—the *melilotos* creeps along the surface,—the ice-plant glistens in the sun,—and the *hemanthus* spreads with wonderful rapidity its broad leaves along the ground, as if to throw a protecting cover over the little moisture the earth had received, and to defend it from the sun. Nature is said to divide her favours; and for the elegance of colour and structure which she has lavished on the Cape Flora, she seems to have withheld that sweetness whose aroma fills the gardens of Europe. Lichtenstein crossed a narrow arm of this karroo, and as his description of it is among the happiest of his efforts we shall transcribe it in a note.¹

Table Mountain.] The northern front of *Table Mountain* overlooks

¹ “As soon as, in the cooler season, the rains begin to fall, and penetrate the hard coat of earth, these fibres (of roots) imbibe the moisture, and, pushing aside the clay, the germ of the plant, under their protection, begins to shoot. As by successive rains the soil gets more and more loosened, the plants at length appear above it, and in a few days the void waste is covered with a delicate green clothing. Not long after, thousands and thousands of flowers enamel the whole surface: the mild mid-day sun expands the radiated crowns of the *mysembranthemums* and *gortinia*, and the young green of the plants is almost hidden by the glowing colours of their full-blown flowers, while the whole air is filled with the most fragrant odour. This odour is more particularly delightful when after a calm day, the sun declines, and the warm breath of the flowers rests quietly on the plain. At this time the whole dreary desert is transformed into one continued garden of flowers; the colonist, with his herds and his flocks, leaves the snowy mountains, and, descending into the plain, there finds a plentiful and wholesome supply of food for the animals, while troops of the tall ostrich and the wandering antelope, driven also from the heights, share the repast, and enliven the scene. But how soon is the country again deprived of all its glory, it scarcely continues more than a month, unless late rains, which must not often be expected, call forth the plants again into new life. As the days begin to lengthen, the revived power of the mid-day sun checks once more the lately-awakened powers of vegetation. The flowers soon fade and fall, the stems and leaves dry away, and the hard coat of earth locks up the germs till the time arrives for the return of the rains; the succulent plants alone still furnish food for the herds and flocks. Soon the streams begin to dry, the springs scarcely flow, till at length the complete drought compels the colonists to seek again their more elevated homes, yet even then they quit the plain with reluctance, and the flocks, accustomed to endure thirst, still linger behind, feeding on the succulent plants which afford at once food and drink, and are particularly salutary to those that bear the wool. Every day, however, the karroo grows more and more solitary, and by the end of September it is wholly deserted. The hardened clay bursts into a thousand cracks, which evince to the traveller the vast power of the African sun. Every trace of verdure is vanished, and the hard red soil is covered over with a brown dust, formed from the ashes of the dried and withered plants.”

Cape Town, and rises almost perpendicularly, like the ruins of some gigantic fortress, till it terminates in a line, nearly horizontal, and of about two miles in extent, the highest point of which is about 3,585 feet above Table Bay. The W. side of this stupendous mass of rock, extending along the seashore, is rent into hollows, and worn away into pyramidal masses. The two wings of the front, namely the *Devil's Hill*, and the *Lion's Head*, make with the Table but one mountain; for though the summits have been separated, they are united to a considerable elevation above the plain. The Devil's Hill, the height of which is 3,315 feet, is broken into irregular points; but the upper part of the Lion's Head, 2,160 feet in elevation, resembles a dome placed on a high conical hill. To the southward Table Mountain descends in terraces, of which the lowest communicates with the chain that extends the whole length of the peninsula. The ascent of the mountain is very steep and difficult, on account of the loose stones which roll away under the feet of the traveller. Its summit is nearly level, and very barren and bare of soil; several cavities, however, are filled with water, or contain a small quantity of vegetable earth, from whence a few odoriferous plants, particularly the *Anaea mucronata*, an elegant frutescent plant peculiar to this habitat, draw their nourishment. Antelopes, baboons, solitary vultures, and toads, are sometimes to be met with on the mountain. The view from the summit is very extensive and picturesque. The bay seems a small pond or basin, and the ships in it are dwindled to little boats; the town under our feet, and the regular compartments of its gardens, look like the work of children; all is dwindled into mere specks and lines. The air on the summit, in winter, and in the shade, is generally about 15° lower than that of the town; but in summer the difference is still greater, particularly when the S.E. wind blows, and a fleecy cloud, called 'the Table-cloth,' appears on the mountain, and gives indication of an approaching storm. This cloud is composed of immense masses of fleecy whiteness. It does not appear to be at rest on the hill, but to be constantly rolling onward from the S.E.; yet, to the surprise of the beholder, it never descends, because the snowy wreaths seen falling over the precipices towards the town below, vanish completely before they reach it, while others are formed to replace them on the other side.²

Rivers.] The colony is deficient in navigable rivers for vessels of any considerable burden. The two principal rivers on the western coast are the *Berg* or 'Mountain River,' and the *Olifant* or 'Elephants' River.' These streams are only navigable by small craft to the distance of about 20 miles up the country.—On the S. coast of the colony the *Breeds* or 'Broad River' discharges itself into St Sebastian's Bay. Its mouth, now called Port Beaufort, allows vessels of 200 tons to enter, and discharge or load in safety.—The *Gauritz*, the next great river on the coast, is a collection of waters from the Great Karroo and Black Mountains. In the rainy season it is a rapid and dangerous stream.—The *Knysna* is considered by Barrow to have been a lake which has opened itself a channel to the

² "The reason of this phenomenon is, that the air constituting the wind from the S.E. having passed over the vast southern ocean, comes charged with as much invisible moisture as its temperature can sustain. In rising up the side of the mountain it is rising in the atmosphere, and is therefore gradually escaping from a part of the former pressure; and on attaining the summit, it has dilated so much, and has consequently become so much colder, that it lets go part of its moisture. This then appears as the cloud now described; but its substance no sooner falls over the edge of the mountain, and again descends in the atmosphere to where it is pressed, and condensed, and heated as before, than the water is redissolved and disappears: thus the magnificent apparition dwells only on the mountain-top."—*Arnot*.

sea, and the tide now sets into it, through a narrow passage, as into a dock. The arms of the Knysna stretch into the deep valleys at the foot of the mountains, and are there lost in impenetrable forests.—The *Keurboom*, like the Knysna, runs up into the midst of tall forests.—The *Camtoos River* admits vessels of 200 tons, and promises to be of great service to the colony, particularly if it prove true that coal is to be found on its banks.—The *Zwart-kops River* is a clear permanent stream of water flowing into Algoa Bay.—The mouth of the *Kowie River* is the next port to the eastward.—The *Great Fish River*, the *Rio d'Infante* of the Portuguese, takes its rise beyond the Snowy Mountains, and in its long course collects a multitude of tributaries. The country through which it winds its course is in many parts covered to an immense extent by a thick jungle; in other quarters we only see vast naked plains, through which the river flows lazily on in a narrow and gloomy ravine 500 or 600 feet deep, which seems to have been formed to confine and preserve the water, “for in no lapse of ages,” says Rose, “could so petty a stream have shaped for itself so tremendous a channel.” The general character of the stream beyond this, in the country of the Amakosa Caffers is the same; the banks are steep but not high, and so thickly covered with wood that the water looks almost black from the effect of the branches that bend over it.—The northern frontiers of the colony are watered by two large rivers: the *Lesser Fish River* and the *Garriep* or ‘Orange River.’ The former, which waters the Great Namaqua territory, falls into the Orange River about 70 miles from its mouth. The Orange River appears to be formed by two rivers which unite their waters nearly 600 miles due E. from their mouth. It falls into the Atlantic in lat. 28° 30'. Most of these rivers, swelled by periodical rains, deposit much mud and sand at their mouths; some of them in the dry season are lost amid the sands and rocks. Besides these principal rivers there are a number of small streams, which may be generally crossed dry-shod, but after a fall of rain increase to a great size.

Capes and Bays.] The chief capes are St Martin's Point, Cape of Good Hope, Handli Point, Cape L'Aguillas, the most southern point of Africa, Robbenberg, and Rocky Point. The bays are St Helena Bay, Saldanha Bay, Table Bay, False Bay, Struy's Bay, St Sebastian or St Catharine's Bay, Flesh Bay, Fish Bay, Mossel Bay, Plettenberg's Bay, Camtoos's Bay, and Zwartkop's Bay; False Bay and Table Bay wash the southern, and the other the northern shore of the isthmus, and are the usual places of resort for shipping. *Cape Aguillas* is not only the most southern land in the colony, but the very extremity of the continent itself. *Saldanha Bay* affords the most commodious harbour in the colony, and one of the finest possible sites for a dock and naval arsenal. Its greatest fault is its being situated so far to leeward of the Cape.

Climate.] The seasons in this colony are divided into monsoons, of which there are two annually,—the one wet, the other dry. The dry monsoon is called summer; the wet monsoon constitutes winter. The former, or rather the spring season, commences in September, the latter in March. So that like all countries a certain distance on the south of the equator, the time of their summer is that of our winter, and the time of their winter that of our summer. During the dry monsoon, S. E. winds are prevalent. The wet monsoon is generally attended with N. W. winds. The weather, during the wet monsoon, is disagreeable and moist, but the cold is never severe. Ice is never much more than the eighth part of an inch thick.

Thunder and lightning are rare, and seldom violent. The atmosphere is healthy, and agrees well with European constitutions. The average of temperature during the winter season is from 50° to 60°. In the middle of summer it varies from 70° to 80°, but the average is 83°. The barometer ranges from 29. 6. to 30. 54.,—mean 30. 18. Icebergs have been encountered near the Cape.

Soil and Productions.] Of the district occupied by the colony, a great part is mountainous and barren; but it contains many fine and fertile tracts. The Cape has long been celebrated among naturalists and botanists as a fertile field for their labours. Almost every animal found on the African continent, may be found in the neighbourhood of this colony. Two varieties of the lion are found in South Africa, namely, the yellow and the brown, or, as the Dutch colonists often term the latter, the blue or black lion. The dark coloured species is the stronger and fiercer. Zebras have become very rare in the colony. The elephants have also forsaken the countries inhabited by Europeans, excepting the Sitachamma district; the two-horned rhinoceros shows itself still more rarely; and the gentle giraffe seeks the more secluded districts. The *Bos Cafer*, or buffaloes of the Cape, is distinguished by enormous horns. The kloofs or clefts of the mountains, in the vicinity of Cape Town, still give shelter to wolves and hyenas. All the mountains abound with a dusky coloured animal, about the size of a rabbit, called here the *das*, the *Hyrax Capensis* of Linnæus. A species of antelope called the *guesbok*, and another species named the *ducker* may be met with in the peninsula; but the *steinbok*, formerly the most numerous of the antelope tribe, is now driven from this part of Africa into the interior. Musquitoes are less offensive here than on the opposite continent of America. Scorpions, scolopendras, large black spiders, and a species of sand-fly are noxious; almost all the serpent tribe found here are venomous. Horses admirably adapted for agricultural purposes, may be bought at the Cape for £4 10s. to £10; heifers for £1 5s. to £2 10s.; and merino sheep for 7s. 6d. The number of plants is great, many of them are uncommon, and not a few indigenous and peculiar. Flax yields two crops in the year, and hemp is abundant. Indian corn grows well; cotton and coffee, rice and sugar, are yet but little known; European wheat and barley thrive well; the flora is singularly rich. On the hills and rugged plains are the most showy productions in the vegetable world, the large and elegant tribe of *proteas*, and the beautiful and ever-varying *ericas*, of the latter of which not fewer, we believe, than 300 different species have been discovered and described. Almost as numerous, and far more diversified, are the families of *geranium*, and *mysembryanthemum*, of *gnaphalium*, *xeranthemum*, and other genera allied to the 'everlastings,' the multitude and brilliancy of whose flowers dazzle while they delight the eye. In this tract are also found the various species of the gaudy aloe, but particularly that (*A. perfoliata*,) from which the drug is extracted: these, with the *crasula*, the *cotyledon*, and the *salsola*, the latter of which yields a potash used in making soap, the *diosma*, *polygala*, *clifortia*, *brunia*, and *myrica*, whose bunches of berries are coated over with a thin pellicle of wax, and a multitude of strange snake-like plants which creep along the ground, are the leading genera which clothe the surface, but do not cover it; for it is characteristic, we believe, of the whole continent of Africa, that even in the most fertile and luxuriant parts of it, the earth is only partially covered; there being no such thing, in fact, as what we call turf or green sod. It would be end-

less to enumerate the products of the vegetable kingdom, but it is impossible to overlook the more humble tribe of liliaceous plants which, here, for their exquisite fragrance and boundless variety of shape and colour, stand unrivalled in any other part of the globe. The palm-like *euphorbia* is every where characteristic of South African scenery.

Mineralogy.] The mountains are generally of sandstone, resting on a base of granite; the inferior hills of compact or slaty schistae, abounding with argillaceous ironstone. Every where iron-ores are abundant. In some places they are found in small regular cubes, in others in the shape of etites or eaglestone, in nodules of various sizes, and filled with an impalpable ocreous powder of every shade of red, brown, and yellow, serving the farmers as paint. At Lattakoo, the Nuakkets and Betschuanas bring to market iron-wares of their own manufactures. Silver and lead-ores have been discovered to the eastward, and abundance of copper-ores to the northward, in the Dammara country, whence are brought fine specimens of malachite, and the much admired stone of an apple-green colour, called prehnite. Native nitre is very common in powder and in crystals, and traces of coal have been discovered not far from the Table mountain. No volcanoes have yet been discovered in this southern part of Africa; but hot springs are not uncommon, some chalybeate, some hepatic, and others apparently free from any extraneous impregnation; and several violent shocks of earthquake have recently terrified the inhabitants of Cape Town.

Manufactures and Commerce.] No manufacture is conducted at the Cape, except the making of wine, of which about 7,900 pipes are annually exported to England, while the colony itself consumes at least 6,500 within the same period. The wine, called Constantia, from the name of the small district where it is made, is much celebrated. The quantity yearly produced does not exceed 100 pipes. The vines from which it is produced were originally brought from Schiraz in Persia. Vines have been transplanted from many different places; and, in several instances, the removal has improved them. Many kinds of wine are extremely cheap. Next to agriculture and wines, the whale and seal-fishery must be ranked. The colonists are making rapid advances in several new experiments, the most prominent of which is the introduction of the silk-worm. The mulberry-tree grows spontaneously, particularly on the S. E. coast; and the produce promises to be of the utmost advantage to the trade of the Cape. The wine-manufacture is greatly improved; and many persons from Europe, accustomed to the cultivation of the grape, and the making of wine, have lately been induced to settle. We find also a great increase of commerce with the natives:—when they bring skins, elephant-teeth, &c. for barter, they begin to take a considerable proportion of English manufactures, in addition to the wonted supplies of cutlery and gunpowder. The settlement is fully supplied with grain, which used to be a great import, chiefly from the Rio Grande and New South Wales. They have also commenced a rivalry with Ireland in the pickling of provisions. All the seeds of Europe, and the chief vegetables, are introduced, and appear to thrive. The Cape supplies various articles of provision and refreshment to ships sailing between Europe and the East Indies. Among these articles may be enumerated corn, flour, biscuit, beef, brandy, and wine; and, while they remain in Table Bay, mutton, greens, and fruits, aloes, hides, barilla, ivory, ostrich-feathers, fruits dried in the sun for the Indian market, are the other products for exportation. About 200 horses, value 56,960 rix-dollars, were in 1821 exported to India. In 1828, the ivory

exported from the Cape amounted to 21,413 pounds weight. The internal commerce of the Cape is chiefly maintained by the visits of the boers to Cape Town, and by fairs at different points of the colony. A new road is now excavating over the Hottentots' Holland Mountains, which will greatly facilitate the intercourse betwixt the coast and the interior. The Caffres and Tamboukies exchange corn, mats, ivory, earthen-pots, cattle, tobacco, beans, honey, melons, live birds, monkeys, quaggas, &c. for European goods. The Cape traders may purchase from them a hide for 65 or 80 buttons, and a pound of ivory for 10 or 15 buttons; the value of which buttons would not in Europe exceed 6s. a gross. The eastern parts of the colony are supplied by coasting vessels. The depreciation of the government-paper under Somerset's administration, from 4s. to 1s. 6d. greatly injured the interests of trade and commerce at the Cape. These paper six-dollars are now calling-in by the British government.

Population.] The population of the colony was estimated in 1798 at 62,000 souls; in 1806 it had risen to 77,055, of whom 29,861 were slaves. In 1812, it was 81,964; in 1819, it amounted to 101,657; and in 1827, to 120,036, viz. :—

	FREE.	SLAVE.	TOTAL.
Western Province,	45,014	28,934	73,948
Eastern Province,	39,513	6,575	46,088
	84,527	35,509	120,036

There will now, therefore, be an individual to every square mile of territory. In 1829, the number of whites in the colony amounted to 54,632.

As the Cape is now a British colony, and has been often pointed out as a comfortable place of settlement for British emigrants, we shall enter a little more minutely into the situation and prospects of its inhabitants than we might otherwise feel warranted to do.

Colonists.] The colonists may be divided into four classes: 1st, The inhabitants of Cape Town; 2d, Wine-growers; 3d, Grain-farmers; 4th, Graziers.

The people of the town were, till recently, accounted of idle and dissolute habits; they subsisted chiefly by the labour of their slaves, each of whom was required to earn a specific sum every week. Eating, drinking, smoking and sleeping, without the least inclination to any kind of mental exertion, constituted the sum of their daily life. This character, however, will not apply to the colonists of the present day, amongst whom we find as good society as in Europe. In fact an impulse has been recently communicated to society at the Cape, by the introduction of improved political institutions, and the presence of increased numbers of well-informed emigrants, which must, ere long, exalt the character of the citizens of Cape Town, and give a new tone to society there. Very frequent marriages take place between English gentlemen and Cape ladies, who are in general very handsome and good-looking until the age of 25.

The wine-growers are of a superior description, and mostly of French descent. Their farms are chiefly freeholds, in extent about 120 acres. They raise little corn, because that is an article easily obtained in exchange for wine. The season for bringing their wines to market is from September to their new vintage in March. A small tax is laid upon the wine and brandy brought to the Cape market; but all that is consumed or sold in the country is free from duty. This class of colonists generally realise

considerable property. Their ancestors were French Protestants, who fled hither from the fury of that great prince and patron of the arts, Louis XIV. when he set about improving his kingdom by revoking the edict of Nantz. At that time, the cultivation of the vine was limited to the Cape peninsula; but these new settlers had lands assigned to them in freehold, or in quitrent, on the other side of the sandy isthmus which connects it with the continent, but within the boundary of the great chain of mountains. The valley of Drakenstein, the Paarlberg, and Stellenbosch, afforded them a choice of situation; and it was chiefly here, and within a range of 30 miles from the Cape, that they fixed themselves; and here many of their descendants reside at this day. Their establishments are large, their houses spacious and respectable, and wearing the appearance of substantial comfort. Trees of immense size, in clumps or in avenues, of oak, pine, chesnut, and others of European origin, point out at a distance the habitation of the wine-planter. The orange, the lemon, the guava, the pomegranate, and many other tropical fruits, mingle with those of Europe in their orchards, and their gardens are abundantly stocked with all the useful culinary vegetables. Their extensive vineyards are enclosed generally with thick and lofty screens of oak, which part with their leaves only three months in the year, and throw out annual shoots of ten or twelve feet in length. The hedge-rows are sometimes of quince, pomegranate, and even of myrtle. In describing one of these comfortable retreats, Lichtenstein says, "Its situation under the lofty, steep, and craggy mountains, the bright green of the broad avenues of old oak, the excellently husbanded pastures and corn-fields, the nice-dressed vineyards, orchards, and orangeries; the sight of numberless well-fed cattle, and the widely extended circle of neat buildings for barns, stables, wine-presses, and workshops, formed altogether a most delightful assemblage of objects. Easy affluence, rational utility, prudent caution, and useful attention to every thing being kept in the most exact order, were every where conspicuous throughout this little domain." Their horses and cattle—of which they have generally a sufficient stock for the supply of their numerous families—are usually kept at some distant loan-farm, held by them in addition to their freeholds. They visit their friends, or go to church or market, in waggons covered with tents, and drawn by six or eight horses, which they drive sitting on the front seat, more by the exercise of a long whip than by the rein,—guiding them with wonderful dexterity at a full gallop, over heathy and deep sands, or up and down the steep and stony passes of high and rugged hills. The wealthiest gentleman-farmer in England cannot be more independent than one of these old family-freeholders at the cape of Good Hope.

The corn-boers live in, or near the Cape district, mostly on freehold estates, and are in general a very wealthy people. They chiefly inhabit that portion of the Cape district to the northward and eastward of Saldanha Bay, and most parts of Stellenbosch, on both sides of the first range of mountains, as far as four or five days' journey from Cape Town. Most of them cultivate the vine also for their own use, and since its advanced price, even those beyond the mountains bring wine to the Cape market. Many of them are substantial farmers, who can send to the capital 4000 or 5000 bushels of wheat annually, besides their own supply, which is not trifling, and that of their neighbours who content themselves with grazing cattle. Their houses are, generally, much inferior to those of the wine-boer, and they are usually to be known by six or eight trees, generally

oak, which look as if they were placed there merely to show, by their freshness and luxuriance of growth, that the owners might have others in different parts of their premises if they had not predetermined that it should not be so. The vineyard of the corn-boor is the only patch he has enclosed, unless he should have—which is not often the case—a small garden, with a few straggling cabbages; or—which is still more rare—an orchard of oranges, peaches, and the more common fruits of the country. The Cape corn-boor is a most unskilful agriculturist. He knows nothing of the advantages of a rotation of crops; nor has he the most distant notion of raising any other green food except a little barley or maize; though turnips, carrots, potatoes, lucern, clover, and, we have reason to think, every kind of artificial grass would do well in this climate. No provision of dry food is ever made to meet the contingency of a drought, and, in consequence of this neglect, the cattle sometimes perish in great numbers. Wheat is the only grain which he cultivates for the market. His plough—an unwieldy machine, heavily dragged along by 12 or 16 oxen—only scratches the surface, and avoids any little patch that may be stony or bushy, or a little stiffer than the rest. He sometimes turns the ground to let it lie fallow, but seldom gives himself the trouble of collecting manure; yet he rarely reaps less than 15 for one; frequently from 20 to 30, and, when he has the command of water, a great deal more. In few parts of the world is finer wheat raised than at the Cape. Specimens of it have been exhibited in Mark Lane, which were considered superior to every other in the market. The grounds of the corn-boor being unenclosed, they have all the appearance, when the grain is off, of heathy wastes, though by a moderate share of labour, they might in two or three years be completely sheltered and protected by hedge-rows of oak, or of the *hawthorn*, which grows still more rapidly. We have very little doubt, that the *hawthorn* would answer remarkably well; and the *lemon* makes an excellent fence. By a little exertion of skill and labour, water might be raised from the rivers, which generally run in deep chasms, and thus be made available to the irrigation of land; in which case the returns would at least double those now obtained.

The *Vee-boor*, or grazier, is still more slothful, and a great deal more savage than the *korn-boor*. He generally possesses a tract of not less than 5000 acres, and consequently has no neighbours within some miles of him. By means of spirits and tobacco, he has not only contrived to juggle the poor Hottentot out of his cattle, but has also compelled him to become their keeper. Having thus no regular employment at home, he, to kill time, and break the even tenor of a lazy life, frequently roams abroad to destroy game, or, in default of other sport, to shoot wild Hottentots or *Bosjesmen*. His enormous musket, which he calls a *roer*, is his inseparable companion; indeed, he would not consider himself safe without it: with it he travels with confidence, for so expert is he in hitting the mark, that he seldom fails to bring down his object, whether it be a Bushman or a wild beast, with a single ball. To an European, the whole establishment of a *Vee-boor* presents a scene of filth and discomfort which could scarcely be imagined. His hovel, generally perched upon an eminence that no hostile attack may be made upon it unperceived, whether by man or beast, has neither tree nor shrub, nor blade of grass near it: a few straw huts, with a number of Hottentot women and children, naked or half-clothed in sheep skins, are the principal objects that attract the eye. Between these huts and the boor's house, is the pen or *kraal* in which the cat-

tle and sheep are shut up at night, to protect them from the wolves and hyenas, or to prevent their straying. The dung of these kraals, the accumulation of years, sometimes rises even to the very eaves of the house; this, however, gives no concern to the boor, who would probably see it overtop them with equal apathy: the only chance of its ever being cleared away is its taking fire, which, in damp weather, sometimes happens. The lambing season is the season of rains, and generally not a few of the lambs on being dropped, are smothered in the bog, a fate which also attends occasionally the calves, and this where wood for constructing sheds might be had almost without trouble, and at no expense: but any suggestion of this kind, leading to a deviation from the good old rule of doing as *vader* had done before him, would be lost upon the Cape-boor. Nor does the interior of the Vee-boor's establishment make any amends for its exterior filthiness. A clay floor, in the pits of which are splashes of sour milk or mud,—a roof open to the thatch,—a square hole or two in the wall for windows, without glass,—an old rug or blanket, or a wattled partition, separating the sleeping apartment,—are the leading features of his hovel. A large chest, which serves as a table at home, or a seat in his waggon when he travels,—a few rickety stools, with bottoms of the thongs of sheep-skins,—a bedstead or two of the same fashion and material,—an iron pot, and a few dishes,—a musket of tremendous size, and a large horn to contain his gunpowder, constitute nearly the whole inventory of his furniture; yet this man is probably the owner of 500 or 600 head of cattle, and 4000 or 5000 sheep. To finish the picture, his appearance is that of indolence personified. Of large dimensions, but loosely put together, his motions are those of an automaton, or of the Brobdingnagers in the pantomime. His dress corresponds with his person: consisting of a loose unbuttoned jacket without skirts, hanging over his shoulders,—a shirt, the colour of which it would not be easy to describe, open in the collar, discovering a sunburnt neck and breast,—skin-breeches, unbuttoned at the knees,—skin-shoes, (stockings are out of the question)—and, to crown the whole, an enormous slouched hat, with a tobacco pipe stuck in the band when not on duty (and it enjoys no sinecure) in the mouth. His children run wild among the little Hottentots, and his wife crouches within the hovel as listless and as unwieldy as himself.

The Hottentots.] The original proprietors of this fine soil, the poor Hottentots—the fabricated stories of whose filthiness are known to every schoolboy, and have made them proverbial in every nation of Europe—are probably the simplest and most inoffensive of the human race. By open robbery and murder, and by a cruel and persevering system of oppression on the part of the Dutch colonists, they have been reduced to not much more than 15,000 souls.³ Under the protection of the British government, by the careful instruction of the Missionaries, and their increased importance in the colony as labourers since the abolition of the slave trade, their number is now considerably on the increase. General Craig, after the capture of the Cape, brought forward, experimentally, the physical and moral qualities of this most injured and degraded people, by forming them into a military corps, which, in point of discipline, obedience, instruction, and *cleanliness*, were not at all behind European troops. The

³ “ Under the Dutch government, it was considered as a severe crime to mention the subject of religion to a native: they were not admitted within the walls of the churches. By a notice stuck above the doors of one of the churches, ‘Hottentots and dogs’ were forbidden to enter!’—PHILIP.

truth is that the filthy appearance of the Hottentot was never from choice but necessity. The anxiety which he now shows to get quit of his sheep-skin clothing for cotton, linen, or woollen, and to keep his person clean, proves that he is far more sensible than the boor to the comforts of civilized life. "Whoever," says the excellent Mr Latrobe, the father of the Moravians in this country, "charges the Hottentots with being inferior to other people of the same class, as to education and the means of improvement, knows nothing about them. They are, in general, more sensible, and possess better judgments than most Europeans, equally destitute of the means of instruction." At *Bavian's Kloof*, or the 'Monkey's Ravine,' which general Jansens altered into *Gnadenhal*, or the 'Valley of Grace,' 130 miles E. by N. of Cape Town, is an establishment of these poor despised people, under the care of missionaries, founded in 1737. The place was once a perfect wilderness. It consists now of a beautiful village containing 1400 Hottentot inhabitants. Every cottage has a garden. A few of the poorer class still wear sheep-skins, and their children go naked; but the far greater part of them make a point of providing themselves with jackets and trowsers and other articles of European dress, which they always wear on Sundays. Both before and after meals they sing grace in the sweetest tones imaginable. The place externally has the appearance of a little paradise: and, let it be remembered this is only one of a great number of these missionary stations. The Hottentots are of a deep brown or yellow-brown colour; their eyes are pure white; their head is small; the face, very wide above, ends in a point; their cheek-bones are prominent; their eyes sunk; the nose flat; the lips thick; the teeth white; and the hand and foot rather small. They are well-made and tall; their hair is black, either curled or woolly, and they have little or no beard. Barrow and Grandpré conceive them to be of Chinese origin. They call themselves *Gkhui-gkhui*, pronounced with a click of the tongue or throat; and say that they did not come from the interior of Africa, but over the sea. The Hottentots are divided into several tribes. The *Dammarras* occupy the most northern part of the country, beyond the Copper mountains, to the 21st degree of latitude, or as far as the country of the Makosesees. The *Great Namaquas* have ascended the banks of the Orange River, in a N. E. direction. The *Little Namaquas* are found to the S. of the same river. The *Kabobiquas* and *Geissiquas* appear to be branches of the Namaquas. The *Koranas* or *Kora-Hottentots* occupy a central country of great extent. Mr Campbell says their chief towns are to be found on the banks of the Orange river.

The Bushmen.] On the confines of the colony, to the north, inhabit the *Bojesmen*, or 'Bushmen,' called by the Koranas *Saabs*, a tribe, among the most debased that have yet been discovered of the human race. They appear to be a branch very anciently separated from the Hottentots. Hunger and cold, and every species of privation and distress, have cramped their growth, and dwindled them down to a stature the most diminutive; the middle size of the men being about 4 feet 6 inches, and of the other sex 4 feet; many are several inches below this standard. They are hideously ugly in shape and feature; the outline of the face triangular and concave; the cheek-bones high; the chin sharp and prominent; the nose flat,—the lips thick,—the eyes obliquely placed in the head, narrow, sunk, keen, and always in motion,—their colour that of a withered tobacco leaf, concealed by a coating of dirt and grease, excepting in places where it may happen to be peeled off,—their legs, thighs, and arms, lean, withered, and

divested of all appearance of muscle,—the joints large, and the belly protuberant! A Boesjesman is a true ‘Pinch—a needy, hollow-eyed, sharp-looking wretch, a living dead man.’ The clothing of the men consists of a raw skin of a sheep, or goat, or antelope, to which the women add a belt of the same material; and to this is appended in front another piece of skin, cut into narrow thongs, and affording but a partial covering to what they appear but little careful to conceal. They sometimes wear round their ancles twisted thongs of skins, and have bits of copper, or shells, or glass beads round the neck, or dangling from the curling tufts of their greasy hair,—hair, unlike that of any other human beings, growing in little detached pellets on the scalp. Every Boesjesman carries a small bow of about 2 feet 6 inches in length, with a quiver on his back filled with barbed arrows about 18 inches in length, and poisoned by the juice of the *Millettia* bulb; these, when he sallies forth to fight or plunder, are stuck in a fillet of skin round the head; and he has generally thrust through the cartilage of his nose a piece of wood or a porcupine-quill. The house of a Boesjesman is easily carried about with him. It is nothing more than a mat of rushes or tong-grass, bent between two sticks into a semicircular shape over a hollow in the ground, scooped out like the nest of the ostrich, in which he coils himself round when he lies down to sleep, like most of the quadrupeds; frequently his only abode is the shelter afforded by the rocks or caverns of the mountains. Communities or families, of a character similar to what we understand by the term *Bushmen*, inhabit all the barren wastes of Great Namaqualand. To the north of these miserable people, several missionary stations have been occupied with considerable success, and by means of these missions we have been made acquainted with a considerable tract of country formerly unknown.

The Caffres.] We must refer our readers to our next article for an account of the third native race of the southern point of Africa.

Languages.] Besides the Dutch and English languages spoken among the colonists, the frequent visits of trading vessels have made several other languages to be commonly understood. Such as the French, the Portuguese, and the Malay. Of the Hottentots and Caffres the languages are entirely different. That of the former is of a barbarous structure, possessing some remarkable verbal affinities to the Mongolian and Kalmuck, and some words it is said in common with the Hindostanee, and of a pronunciation so harsh and difficult as to be grating to an European ear, and almost impossible to an European tongue. In pronouncing many of their words, the tongue is forcibly pressed, sometimes against the teeth, sometimes against the palate, producing a combination of sounds which no character with which we are acquainted can indicate. The diphthongs *eao*, *aao*, and *ouou* predominate, and the phrase frequently ends with a final *ing*. This mode of pronunciation gives the language a sound so guttural and harsh, as to be extremely disagreeable. The language of the Caffres is said to be soft and sonorous, with a harmonious pronunciation, easily acquired by strangers. They are said to want the letter *r*. They cannot, therefore, pronounce the name by which they are generally known, which has been applied to this tribe only accidentally. They call themselves *Koussie*. Nothing like a written character exists either among them or the Hottentots. “Savage tribes,” remarks Malte Brun, “are continually changing their idioms; every new chief wishes to introduce some new form of speech, hence arise an instability and multiplication of dialects which perplex critical study. This is a general phenomenon both in Asia

and America. It is particularly the case in the customs of the different Hottentot idioms which are continually varying." The Bushmen speak a Hottentot dialect; but the idiom is sufficiently strong to prevent the two races of people from communicating with each other except by signs.

Slaves.] We regret to state that slavery still exists at the Cape. The Negro slaves were originally brought by the Dutch from Madagascar and Mozambique. The Malay slaves are artisans, their females house-servants. The most valuable class of slaves is the *Africander*,—the African born slave, the produce of a Cape Dutchman and a slave-girl. They are not much darker than Europeans, and are the confidential servants of their masters. Since this colony fell into the hands of the British, measures have been taken for improving the condition of these slaves. An ordinance to this effect, which was put into effect on the 1st of August 1826, has already been productive of much good.⁴

Government.] Since the capture of this colony in 1806, the government has been rather of a military than of a civil character; as the governor was not only the first civil officer, but the commander of the forces. He was assisted in the civil administration by legal assessors. Since the recall of the late governor, Lord Charles Somerset, great amelioration and reductions have taken place in the judicial and executive establishment of this colony. Trial by jury in criminal cases has been introduced; and a new supreme court instituted, which opens to the colonists all the advantages of an English court of unlimited jurisdiction. It is composed of a chief justice and 3 puisne judges, whose appointments are rendered by the charter as independent as those of English judges,—a regulation of which we believe the present is the first instance, but which we hope will in future

⁴ The chief points embraced in the ordinance of the Cape government may be enumerated in a few words. As in the other slave-colonies—the work of amelioration begins with the appointment of a guardian of slaves, who, at the Cape of Good Hope, is to unite the functions of the Inspector of the slave-registry with those of the new office. The second important point in the ordinance relates to the observation of Sunday. Sunday-markets are prohibited,—the slaves are protected against the exaction of labour on that day,—and masters are prohibited, under penalties, from restraining their slaves from going to church. The third regulation of importance restricts slave-labour in the fields, or gardens, to 10 hours for one portion of the year, and 12 hours the other. We may mention as the fourth, the article which limits the infliction of corporal punishment to 25 stripes for male slaves, and abolishes public flogging entirely as respects females. We mention public flogging, because a species of domestic chastisement by 'whipping privately on the shoulders' is still very carefully retained. By another article, the testimony of a slave is to be received in aid or in explanation of the evidence of his stripes, if he complains of hard treatment, and may be admitted in civil cases, except when his master is one of the parties. A provision is made for allowing the solemnization of marriages between slaves belonging to the same or different masters. If the masters give their consent, no person can of course forbid the bans; and if they refuse, the guardian may overrule their objections, or dispense with their authority. The children of such marriages belong to the owner of the mother. It is provided in another clause, that children between three and ten must be sent to the free schools. The article which relates to manumission is, of course, of great importance; slaves are to be allowed to purchase their freedom by paying their appraised value, on proof that the money has been acquired by lawful means. As a savings' bank is already established in the colony, provision is ordered to be made, to give the fullest effect to its regulations in favour of slaves, who may make it a deposit for their earnings. They are to receive 4 per cent. on every sum above 25*l.*, and, in contemplation of death, may dispose of their contributions to any person they choose by making a declaration in his favour, which declaration shall be recorded and deemed the last will of the party. The registrar and guardian of the slaves is to frame and transmit through the governor a half-yearly report on all matters relating to his office to the minister for the colonial department at home. The *South African Advertiser* says, that of only two articles have any complaints been heard—the prohibition of voluntary field-labour on Sundays, and the right given to the slaves to enforce their manumission on paying their value. A philanthropic society was established at the Cape, in July 1826 for assisting deserving slaves and slave-children to purchase their freedom.

be adopted in all our colonial appointments. The revenue of the colony arises from various sources, the principal of which are: land, import-duties, stamps, and duties on sales and transfers. The expenditure has usually exceeded the revenue, which in 1829 was £97,000; but the full resources of this country have not yet been called into action, and its value must be estimated at present, not by its actual revenue, but from the circumstance of its forming a connecting link between Great Britain and her possessions in the East. English chaplains have been appointed for the English settlers and garrison at Cape Town, and for each district. The salary of the district-chaplains is £150 with a house and farm. The London, Wesleyan, Moravian, and Glasgow Missionary Societies have several agents in this quarter. The Malays have their own imamu in Cape Town.

TOPOGRAPHY.] We shall commence our brief topographical sketch with the seat of government.

Cape District and Town.] The Cape district is at once the smallest and most populous in this colony, containing in 1823, on a surface of about 2,240 square miles, a population, exclusive of the capital, of 7,462 souls. With the population of the capital, it cannot now be under 28,000 souls. It consists of two parts; the *peninsula* on which the town is built, about 30 miles in length and 8 in breadth, connected with the continent by a low flat isthmus,—and a slip of land extending from the shore of Table bay to the mouth of Berg river, or about 80 miles from N. to S. and 25 from E. to W.

Cape-town is situated in a valley, at the foot of Table mountain, and at the S.E. angle of Table bay. It was founded in 1652, and is built with great regularity, and with a considerable degree of elegance. The streets, which are wide, intersect each other at right angles. The houses, about 1500 in number, for the most part are of stone, cemented with a glutinous kind of earth, and are generally whitewashed on the outside. Their height is seldom more than two floors, frequent storms rendering a greater elevation dangerous. For the same reason, thatch was long preferred to tiles or shingles; but the frequent damage done to thatched houses by fire, latterly induced the inhabitants to roof their houses with tiles or slates. Every thing is neat and clean, and the furniture of the higher ranks, if not, according to European notions, elegant, is at least rich. Notwithstanding the regularity of the plan, and the breadth of the streets, they are yet rough and unpaved. Many of the houses have trees planted before them, which give a rural appearance to the town. The castle is a large pentagonal fortress, on the south-eastern or inland side of the town, close to the water's edge. The colonial office possesses a fine collection of books. To the southward of the town a great number of elegant villas are scattered about, and the scenery resembles that of the rich and cultivated districts of England. Labour, house-rent, and fire-wood, constitute a large proportion of the expenses of living at Cape-town; fruit, vegetables, and sea-fish are abundant and cheap. Horse-races, balls, masquerades, and Sunday-promenades in the government-gardens, form the leading amusements. The 'Cape Literary Society,' founded in 1824, and revived in 1828, is a very promising institution. The 'South African Institution,' established in 1829, for investigating the geography, history, and resources of South Africa, is likely to prove a still more important acquisition to the colony. In 1824 the population of Cape-town stood as follows: White Inhabitants 8,246; Free Blacks 1,870; Prize-apprentices 956; Hottentots 520; Slaves 7,076.—Total 18,668 souls.

Stellenbosch and Drakenstein.] The district of Stellenbosch and

Drakenstein formerly included the country from Cape L'Aguilles, the southernmost point of Africa, to the river Koosseie, the northernmost boundary of the colony, being a line of 380 miles in length and 150 in breadth. Part of this territory consists of naked mountains and arid plains, but the remainder is a fruitful soil stretching along the great chain of mountains from False Bay to the mouth of Elephant's river. Forests of magnificent oaks exist to the E. of False Bay, in that part called *Hottentot Holland*. *Stellenbosch* is a handsome village, about 26 miles E. of Cape-town, founded in 1670.

Zwellendam.] The district of Zwellendam, previous to the late subdivision of the colony, included the coast between the Breede river on the W. and the Camtoos river on the E., running northerly to the Black mountains. Its length was about 380 and its breadth 60 miles. The principal village consists of about 30 houses irregularly disposed in a fertile valley.—In this district *Mossel Bay* opens to the S.E. and affords a safe anchorage when winds blow from S.S.W., W., and round E.N.E. Here is a magazine for the reception of grain previous to export.—The next division to Mossel Bay is the *Autinaquas Land*, extending as far as the Kayman or Crocodile river. The mountains here are covered with forests, and the land affords sustenance to immense herds of cattle.—*Plettenberg's Bay* begins at the Kaiman river and continues to the inaccessible forests of Sitsiskamma. This tract is exceedingly beautiful, and produces fine large timber.

Graaf Reynet.] This district, previous to its subdivision, extended to the eastern limits of the colony, 500 miles from Cape-town. The Great Fish River, the Tarka, the Bamboesberg, and the Zuurberg, divided it from the Caffres on the E.; the Camtoos river, the Lion's river, and the Nieuweweld mountains from Zwellendam and Stellenbosch districts on the W.; Plettenberg Landmark, the great Table mountains, and the Karrooberg from the Bojesman Hottentots on the N. The mean length and breadth of the district was about 250 by 160 miles. The inhabitants are chiefly graziers. Herds of 15,000 springboks have sometimes been observed grazing here. Zebras, lions, and buffaloes occur.—*Algoa Bay*, in this district, is open to every point of the compass from N.E. to S.E., with good anchorage in 5 fathoms water. The winds blow three-fourths of the year from N.W., when the bay is quite smooth. It is about 20 miles in compass, and abounds in every sort of fish. The black whale resorts to it in great numbers. In 1828 the raw and estimated produce of cattle exported from this place amounted to £32,089.—It was in this neighbourhood that Dr Vanderkemp fixed his residence, and founded *Bethelsdorp* in rather an unpromising situation, 450 miles E. of Cape-town. Nevertheless the Hottentot race have made rapid improvement here, and this too while the missions were exposed to the incessant persecution, not merely of the provincial functionaries, but of the colonial government itself.—*Uitenhage*, about 18 miles from the bay, is the principal town in the district. The surrounding country is fine, and abounds with game.

Authorities.] Vaillant's Travels in Africa.—Barrow's Travels in Southern Africa, 2 vols. 4to. 1806.—Lichtenstein's Voyage to the Cape.—Latreille's Journal, 4to. 1818.—Campbell's Travels in Africa, 2 vols. 8vo. 1822.—Burchell's Travels in the Interior of Southern Africa, 2 vols. 4to. 1822-4.—Colebrook's State of the Cape in 1822.—Thompson's Travels in Southern Africa, 2 vols. 8vo. 1827.—Philip's Researches in Southern Africa, 2 vols. 8vo. Lond. 1828.—Rose's Four Years in Africa, 8vo. Lond. 1829.

CAFFRARIA.

SOME geographers apply the term *Caffraria* to the whole tract of country extending from Mozambique to the frontiers of the Cape territory, and indefinitely westwards; which, however, is capable of a minuter division into the four following districts: The country of the *Barooloos* on the N.W.; the district of *Monomotapa* on the N.E.; *Caffraria Proper* on the S.E.; and the country of the *Betschuanas* on the S.W. These countries are inhabited by a multitude of different tribes, but all apparently belonging to the great Caffre stem; we shall therefore preface our topographical account of the country with a general description of the Caffre nations.

Of the names Caffre and Caffraria.] "The Portuguese navigators," says Malte Brun, "after doubling the cape of Good Hope, found the inhabitants of the eastern coast of Africa more advanced in civilization as they approached the N., where the Arabs had introduced their own manners and religious belief. These Mahommedans designated, under the vague name of *Caffres* or '*heretics*,' all the natives of those countries into which the Mussulman religion had not been introduced. Under the name of *Casarah*, or *Caffraria*, the Arabian geographers comprehended the whole interior of Africa. Caffraria might thus reach to Nigritia, line the Indian ocean from Zeila as far as Brava, and again extend to the borders of the sea to the S. of Sofala. In proportion as the specific names of kingdoms and people became known to Europeans, the extent of Caffraria diminished on the maps, and had nearly become extinct. Nevertheless, when the Dutch at the Cape, while extending by degrees the limits of their colony towards the E., found it necessary to make their neighbours better known, they adopted the Arabic name, transmitted by the Portuguese writers, with a view of applying it particularly to the tribe with whom they were in immediate contact, the true name of which is *Koussa*. We conceive that the term *Caffre* may be provisionally employed for designating the predominant, and probably the indigenous race of eastern Africa, while, at the same time, it would be inconvenient to apply it to any particular colony."

The Caffres.] The head of these people like that of Europeans, presents a raised arch; the nose, far from being flat, approaches the hooked form; they have, however, the Negro's thick lips, and the large buttocks of the Hottentot; their frizzled hair is less woolly than that of the Negro; their beard stronger than the Hottentot's; a brown or iron-gray complexion appears to separate them again from the Negro. "The chief," says Rose, "is generally distinguished from his followers by a carosie of tiger skin, and by a narrow tasteful-beaded band worn round the head; and when he stands surrounded by his armed attendants wrapped in their dark cloaks, it forms a most imposing sight. Their figures are the noblest that my eye ever gazed upon; their movements the most graceful, and their attitudes the proudest standing-like forms of monumental bronze. I was much struck with the strong resemblance that a group of Caffres bear

to the Greek and Etruscan antique remains, except that the savage drape is more scanty, and falls in simpler folds." The appearance of the Caffre when prepared for war, is wild and singular. His carosie is thrown aside; his covering is an ample shield formed of a hardened hide; this hangs on one arm, while a bundle of five assegys is held in the right hand, and two lofty plumes of the feathers of the grey crane are fastened to his head by a leathern band. Some of the Caffre tribes wear beetle-amulets, the use of which we have already remarked in our account of the Nubian Negro tribes. The Caffres rarely paint their faces with different colours, as the Hottentots do; but often paint their face and body uniformly red, with the dust of a kind of red chalk, men and women; the latter especially adorn their arms, backs, and breasts with cicatrices of the size of grains of wheat, placed in regular rows, which are commonly double, triple, and sometimes quadruple. These cicatrices are formed by thrusting a pointed iron through the skin, and pulling it forcibly up, so as to remain prominent above the surface of the body, and to form a kind of bas-relievo work.

From the striking dissimilarity of the Caffres to the surrounding tribes in countenance and in language, they have been supposed not to be the original inhabitants of the country which they at present possess. To say, however, from what other country they have emigrated, would, we fear, puzzle the most diligent enquirer. By some they have been conjectured to be of an Arabian original; and in their progress towards the Cape, they have been supposed to traverse the eastern coast of Africa. The Caffre tribes practise circumcision, but are said not to consider it in a religious light. The only cause assigned by them for such a custom, is, that it was practised by their forefathers,—a cause with which they expect every inquirer to be satisfied. "I never could perceive," says Dr Vanderkemp, "that they had any religion, or any idea of the existence of a God. I am speaking nationally; for there are many individuals who have some notion of his existence, which they have received from adjacent nations. A decisive proof of what I here say, with respect to the national atheism of the Caffres is, that they have no word in their language to express the Deity.

Customs.] Their medical operations are, for the greatest part, magical; and most of their complaints are cured by extracting stones, serpents, bones, pieces of wood, &c. out of the body of the patient. In some cases, the complaint is considered as a work of the devil possessing the patient. When the devil is cast out, the doctor pretends to take hold of him to kill him; but is commonly obliged to run after him, over mountains and through valleys, with an assegye in his hand, and, returning, tells the credulous people that he could not overtake him, or that he has killed him. I lived in a place near the Keiskamma, where I observed a great heap of stones; and that every one who passed by, threw a stone, or a handful of grass, to it. The Caffre captain who lived in the same place, declared, that he himself was totally ignorant of the reason of this custom. The Hottentots throw stones upon the graves of their people; but this was not a grave." They do not bury their dead, but throw them to the wolves: to be buried is the king's exclusive privilege. But they commonly lay their sick people out in the field, to be devoured by the wolves before they die, as soon as they consider their case as desperate. They are, however, often mistaken in their *prognosis*; and the sick person returns to his house, and recovers. If not, the consequence is a second, and perhaps

a third exportation ; after which, the last step is to lock up the patient in his house, with a little meat and drink, and then the whole kraal breaks up, and they leave him to die. "It was a long time," continues Dr Vanderkemp, "before I could trace the real motives for this cruel practice ; but since I am a little more acquainted with the character of this cruel nation, I think it is only love to self-preservation. They fancy, that if they suffer the disease to go on, it will bring on the whole society (I know not what) greater calamity. To prevent this, they know no other remedy than to destroy the subject of the distemper, and so to make an end of it. Their conduct, in other similar cases, is perfectly analogous. When they see a friend in danger of being drowned, his panic frightens them ; and they will run from him, or throw stones at him, rather than help him. Likewise, when a child-bearing woman is seized with labour, every one runs from her, and she is left helpless. When they intend to honour a person whom they esteem, they give him a new name ; the meaning of which is known only to him who invented it ; and it is surprising how quickly this name is spread over all the country. Though they are extremely savage, they observe a peculiar decency in their manners. I recollect only one instance of a Caffre from whom an indecent word escaped in company ; he was but a boy, and he was immediately turned out of doors for it."

Government.] The Caffre tribes are divided into smaller sections, called *kraals*, each of which has its own chief or captain, whose dignity is hereditary. It often happens that some more powerful chief usurps a kind of kingly authority over a number of these kraals.

Mode of living, and means of subsistence.] They subsist upon their cattle, which is only of the ox kind ; they have neither sheep, hogs, nor fowls. If a man be poor, and have no cattle, he goes to the king, or some of the captains, who always give him more than a sufficient quantity. They have a second resource by hunting ; and a third by agriculture. Besides this, they take immense quantities of cattle from the Hottentots, and are reciprocally robbed of their own by other tribes. They never eat fish, except some kraals which are very poor ; but they are, as it were, separated from the common society, and on that account are despised. They have no money ; cattle, and other articles necessary for subsistence, supply its place, by way of exchange. In the centre of every kraal is a large circular area, fenced by trees. In this beast-kraal, all the cattle belonging to the kraal are driven in the evening, and milked ; and in the morning, after milking again, led out into the field, and watched by a few of their young people. In the middle of this beast-kraal, each family has its corn-magazine, which is a pit dug pretty deep into the ground. In this pit the corn lies on the bare ground, but is covered with the straw of the corn, and this again by cow-dung ; the rest is filled up with earth taken from the kraal. In those pits the corn remains dry, as the cow-dung keeps out the rain, and sucks in the moisture. Every one knows his own pit, though there is no mark upon it. When the pit is opened for the first time after the harvest, the proprietor gives a basket full of it to every family in the kraal, and a somewhat larger portion to the captain. Every kraal has its common garden ; and many families private ones. They are fenced nearly in the same manner as the beast-kraal ; but they use more wood to them. Every year they make a new fence, and the old one serves for fuel. Besides the beast-kraal, they have a smaller one, in which they lock up their calves, which they night and day keep separate from the

cows, except at the time of milking. Round the beast and calf-kraals are placed their houses, perhaps 100 paces from them. They are hemispherical huts, built by their women; they draw a circle on the ground of from about eighteen to twenty-five feet diameter, and place on its circumference long sticks, at about the distance of a foot, leaving a space for a door; then they bend and join them so as to form so many arches, crossing each other at the top. Across these they fix thinner ones in various directions; this kind of dome is supported by one or more (two, three, or four) strong poles, thatched with straw, and lined in the inside with clay mixed with cow-dung. The entrance is two or three feet high. At the inside is commonly formed a kind of portal. These huts have no chimney; but the fire escapes through the straw of the roof. The Caffres never place their kraals close to a river, but keep always at a distance of 3 or 400 paces, to avoid the cold and fogs arising from it; and prefer a woody country: whereas the Bushmen avoid woods, and keep themselves in the rocks.

The Caffre corn is a kind of millet (*holcus Caffrorum*), which grows from seven to ten feet high; the stalks are about an inch thick, and have a saccharine taste. The corn itself is eaten boiled; and is more palatable than rice. They also bruise it between two stones, and make unleavened bread of it. They likewise malt it, after which it is boiled, and the decoction fermented. This drink they call *ijaloo*. When they sow this corn—which is the work of the women—they use neither plough nor spade, nor any manure, but only throw the seed on the grass; after this, they push off the grass with a kind of wooden spade. By this operation, the seed falls on the ground, and is covered with the grass. From underneath this half-dried and half-rotten grass, the corn afterwards springs up. There is another kind of corn, which they call *bona*; it is known in the colony by the name of *mealis*, and in Holland by that of Turkish corn. The grains grow much larger here than in Europe, and are equal to peas. They sow also pumpkins, and a peculiar kind of water-melons. Besides this garden-stuff, they use several vegetables which grow wild; most of them are roots and fruits unknown in Europe. Of the last, the *ingonja* is a large tree, bearing a fruit of the drupa kind, which is of a delicious flavour, resembling that of sugar acidulated with lemon-juice: it is of an oval form, about two inches in length. The Caffres cultivate tobacco in great quantities; and draw its smoke from a wooden pipe, which is inserted in a cow's horn, half filled with water. The head of the pipe containing the tobacco, is placed vertically; the stem, running obliquely downwards, pierces the side of the horn, below the surface of the water. They close up the orifices of the horn with the palm of their hand, leaving only a small aperture, through which they suck in the smoke. The Caffre dislikes salt; and instead of it, rolls his meat through cow-dung, and so throws it on the fire to roast it; being first cut into long slices which run zig-zag. When one of their principal men dines, these slices, hanging on a stick, are offered him by a servant. He cuts off his piece with his assegaye, and divides it among some of the company, to whom he gives a piece of his; who, in receiving it, says *unkoes* 'I thank you.' After this every one cuts for himself. Fire is kindled by the friction of one stick against another, of the wood called *dethe*. The one is laid flat upon the ground; the other is placed vertically upon the former, and its end rests in a cavity made in the middle of the horizontal one; the vertical stick is then turned quickly between the two hands, and at the same time strongly

pressed downwards: by this means some powder is rubbed off the two sticks, which grows gradually hot, black, and at last catches fire.

Mountains and Rivers.] "The Caffre nations," says Malte Brun, "inhabit a region less known than any on the globe. We there see, behind a marshy, unhealthy, but fertile coast, chains of mountains arise that have been very imperfectly examined, which appear to be in a parallel direction with the coast, that is from S. W. to N. E. Do these interrupted chains, traversed by several rivers, proceed from a plateau, or from a central chain? Do the rivers *Zambese*, *Coava*, and *Quilimanci*, derive their sources from amongst rocks, precipices, perhaps even from the midst of snows and ice, or are they formed in vast sandy plains, like those from the plateau of central Asia, or from verdant savannas, similar to those of America? There is nothing to assist us in resolving these questions." Our missionaries inform us, that those parts of Caffraria which they have visited, are mountainous and rich in water. The soil is argillaceous, tempered with fine sand, and very fertile. The whole surface, and even the tops of the mountains, are covered with woods, shrubs, grass, and other vegetables; never naked and parched, except in uncommonly dry seasons.

Climate.] The winter, which is the rainy season at the Cape, is in Caffreland the driest; and most of the rain comes down by thunderstorms in the summer. The country in general is considerably elevated above the level of the sea, and much colder than, from its nearness to the tropic, might be expected. Perhaps the plentiful rains, the high mountains, and the strong electricity prevailing in the atmosphere, may be mentioned among the causes of its fertility. The thunder-storms, which are more frequent and tremendous than in Europe, exhibit also uncommon phenomena. The flashes of lightning, which in Europe diffuse a light through the air, which dazzle the eye, and disappear in a moment, here consist of a stream of distinct sparks drawn by the earth from the clouds, or from one cloud by another. This stream is commonly double or triple; and sometimes lasts two, or two seconds and a-half. This has of course a greater force, as it is attended by less light. There is little difference with respect to cold between summer and winter: and if sometimes the green leaves of some trees look not so bright and lively in this last season, it is more for want of rain, than on account of the cold. The country is remarkably healthy. There is, however, sometimes a great mortality among this people, occasioned by putrid typhi, arising from their diet when milk is scarce in dry seasons, and their close confinement in their huts.

Quadrupeds.] The most common are the ox and the wolf. Of the former (including bulls and cows) they often possess several hundreds; and some keep above a thousand. Of the latter, there are two kinds: the first is spotted; and, on that account, called by the colonists, *Tiger-wolf*;—the other is the *Strand-wolf*. The first is most common, and very troublesome. The lion and the buffalo are less frequent. These animals seem to be fond of each other, and commonly keep company; though the lion uses the buffalo for food. Elks grow very large: one of them affords more meat than two oxen: they are easily taken. The elephant of this country is very tall, much more so than that of India: his teeth are sometimes eight and nine feet long. There are no tame horses in Caffreland, except a very few, which are brought from the colony; but there are two sorts of wild horses,—the *Dau* and the *Kwagga*: the former is more beautifully streaked than the latter. The *Kwagga* is an enemy to the

wolf, and drives him out of the field which he inhabits. The tiger of this country is not streaked, but spotted with small brown spots. "I must also mention," says Dr Vanderkemp, "an animal, the name of which is not known in the colony, as they call it the Unknown Animal. The Hottentots call it *Kamma*. It is sometimes seen among a herd of elks, and is much higher than these. It was never caught nor shot, as it is, by its swiftness, unapproachable; it has the form of a horse, and is streaked; but finer than the *Daw*. Its step is like that of a horse. I looked upon this description as somewhat fabulous, till we came near the Teitjana, among the Boeschmen; there one of our company saw an animal among some kwaggas, which he had never seen before: he said, that it was like a most beautiful horse, but much larger. The Boeschmen pointed to a plain, where they said these animals were found in great numbers. This one had a tail like that of a *ngow*, but with a much longer bunch of hairs at the point." This appears to be the unicorn of Campbell and others. At Mashow, a town in the territory of the Tamakas, an animal of the rhinoceros kind was killed in 1821, having a horn projecting three feet from the forehead, arising about ten inches above the tip of the nose. A few inches of a small second horn, behind, did not affect its unicorn appearance. The head measured three feet from the mouth to the ear. It is at present deposited in the British Museum. The origin, figure, position, and magnitude of the horn corresponded exactly with the above-mentioned representation of the unicorn in the Bushman caves of Bambo, as delineated by Barrow, and not the smallest doubt can remain that Mr Campbell's animal is identical with the Bushman original, as far down as the neck. The country in which it was killed, lies directly north from that assigned to the unicorn by Barrow, namely, behind the Bamba mountains, where the animal found by Campbell is so far from being rare, "that the natives hardly took the smallest notice of the head, but treated it as a thing familiar to them." They make from one horn, four handles for their battle-axes. The leopard is a different animal from that of the spotted tiger, and very tame, if educated young. The African stag also differs from the European: it is larger, more fierce, and its horns are without ramifications. There are two sorts of wild hogs. The rhinoceros with two horns, and the sea-cow, are also natives of this country. The latter has strength and courage enough to throw a rhinoceros from the rocks down into the river. The rhinoceros, however, is the terror of the elephant, and sometimes puts many of them to flight. There is a variety of different sorts of bucks, distinguished by the names of *Steinbok*, *Springbok*, *Rietbok*, *Boschbok*, *Klipspringer*, *Bontebok*, *Gemsbok*, *Duiker*, *Blaauwebok*, *Rheebok*, and *Orbietje*. Dr Vanderkemp says, "Among the quadrupeds, I may rank a serpent with four legs, called by the Caffres, *Kabe*; and also a numerous tribe of lizards, from which the former differs, and of which I can only mention the *geitje*, the salamander, and the *cameleon*."

Insects, &c.] "Two kinds of spiders," says Dr Vanderkemp, "attracted my attention; the one being very large, and the other smaller, having on its back a hard and very broad shell, like white enamel. There is a very large sort of scolopendra, large snails, and multitudes of scorpions, the bite of which is said to be mortal: that a wound made by its sting in the tail, is not so, I have experienced more than once. There are also a variety of butterflies, and the *mantis*. This animal appears to have been held in some reverence, as its name seems to import. The Hottentots

consider it almost as a deity, and offer their prayers to it, begging that it may not destroy them; and the Caffres call it *Oumtoanizoulou*, that is, 'Child of Heaven.' There is also a variety of locusts, and a vast quantity of wild honey. *Phimpi*, *Khaendi*, *Naamba*, *Noussou*, *Chamba*, and *Inthango*, are different sorts of serpents. The first, I think, is the Cobra-capello of the colony; the second, a greenish water-snake; the third, a large grey serpent of the woods; the fourth, a yellow-coloured one; the fifth and sixth are vipers; the former is the large puff-adder; the latter is the viper of the mountains. Caffraria produces many sorts of ants; some of them build their nests above the ground of clay, of an hemispherical form, the radius of which is from one to three feet; another sort build houses of a conical shape, being very acute at the top. I have seen multitudes of fish in several rivers; but I do not know of what kind they were: the only fish I have eaten of is the eel."

The Natal Coast.] The Natal coast, extending from the great Fish-river, near the colony of the Cape, as far as the bay of Lorenzo-Marques or Lagoa, is watered by many rivers, covered with wood, and intersected by fields or magnificent savannas; there is no port safe, and sufficiently deep, to afford shelter to large ships. None of these rivers have a long course. In the interior are chains of mountains that appear to be of a calcareous nature, as the natives hollow caverns in them, in which they live with their herds. The *holcus*, maize, and cattle, constitute the wealth of the inhabitants. They obtain a species of silk from a plant like the *asclepias* of Syria.

Tribe of the Koussas.] The tribe that first presents itself, in tracing the coast from S. to N., is that of the Koussas. We have been made acquainted with it by two recent travellers, Lichtenstein and Alberti. The country of the Koussas is bounded on the E. by the river Key, on the W. by the Keyskamma river, on the S. by the sea, and on the N. by a great chain of mountains, crossing from W. to E., dividing it from the territory of the Bushmen. It is traversed by the rivers Keyskamma and Buffalo; the last alone furnishes good water. The territory between the Great Fish and the Keyskamma, including a parallelogram of 2000 square miles of the finest land in Caffraria, fertile, well-watered, abounding in luxurious pastures, has lately been ceded by the friendly chief of the Caffres, Gaika, and now forms a new district of the Cape territory, under the name of Albany.

The Tambookies.] After passing the river Key, or its tributary streams the *Zomo* and *Bassah*, you enter the country of the Tambookies; the true name of which, according to a modern traveller, is *Ma-Thimba*. It is from these people that the Koussas derive their songs, composed less of words than of syllables unintelligible to themselves. They possess iron and copper mixed with silver; at least their rings are composed of a similar metal.

The Hambounas.] On the other side of the Nabagana are the Hambounas; their identity with the *Mambookas*, supported by Lichtenstein, is not altogether incontestible. The first name is that given by the Gonaquas to a colony bordering on the Tambookies; the second is the name that the traveller, Van-Reenen, heard given in the country, a name also known to Sparrmann. According to Lichtenstein, the Koussas call them Immo. They cannot be distinguished among these obscure and uncertain denominations. Among the colonies remote from the coast are the *Abbatoana* and *Maduanq*.

The Betschuanas.] This nation is called *Brigwas* by the Hottentots, from whom they are separated by the inhospitable desert of the Bushmen. We are told that it also takes the name of *Moulitjovanas* and *Sijovanas*. The country of this people, situated between the 20th and 25th degrees of latitude, has a very agreeable and varied aspect; forests of mimosa are intermixed with fine pasturage. The Betschuanas are divided into several tribes. On entering the country from the south, that of *Maitjapings*, on the river *Kurumana*, is first met with; it is the least powerful. One degree farther north, on the river *Sétabi*, are found the *Murulongs*; their number amounts to 10,000. Some years have now elapsed since these two tribes, then united at the source Takoon, constituted the renowned city of *Latakoo*, of which Barrow has left so brilliant a picture. Though shifted from its former site, it is still as large as the new city of the same name.

Old and New Lattakoo.] About 900 miles to the N.E. of Cape-town is *New Lattakoo*, situated near the source of the Krooman, a main branch of the Orange river; and 50 miles beyond that stands *Old Lattakoo*; each of these towns contains about 4000 inhabitants, whom Mr Campbell sometimes calls *Boothuanas*, and sometimes *Matchappees*. They appear to be a peaceable and good-humoured race, with faculties somewhat obtuse and dull: the men pass the day in indolence, lounging and sleeping in the public squares or inclosures, whilst the women are employed in reaping the corn, or in the various branches of domestic duties. The former, however, tend the cattle, which are sent out to a distance to graze, and are frequently carried off by the Bushmen. On such occasions, the whole male population is summoned to pursue the spoilers, who, if overtaken, are put to death without mercy. On their return from these expeditions, the women and children go out to meet the conquerors, singing and dancing before them till they reach the public square, where a *pesto*, or general meeting of the captains, takes place, when the chiefs in set speeches relate to the assembly all the circumstances of the contest, and its result. These *pestos* are also held on any great public occasion, when long orations are delivered by the chief; and the debates are conducted with the greatest freedom and the utmost latitude of speech: from the pauses and measured cadences, Mr Campbell thought that some of them resembled blank verse. He gives an instance of the liberty of speech in which the orators indulge, by quoting that of a young captain, (a kind of Matchappee *dandy*), who told the king, that he did not like to see kings with thick legs and corpulent bodies; they ought (he said) to be kept thin by watching and defending the castle. The reply of the monarch was not without point:—‘You come before me powdered and dressed, and boast of your expeditions, but I believe you are unwilling to go on them; you can talk bravely before the women, but I know you too well to take you against those nations’—namely, those who had stolen their cattle. These speeches are accompanied with dancing, shouting, and all manner of tumultuous noise. ‘Few scenes,’ Mr Campbell says, ‘can be conceived more completely savage, almost bordering on the frightful; but the tones of voice and the actions of most of the speakers were oratorical and graceful, and they possessed great fluency of utterance—in fact they exhibited a singular compound of barbarism and civilization.’

The Mashows.] The king of the Mashows, a country about 150 miles to the N.E., was on a visit to Mateebe on Mr Campbell’s arrival at Latakoo. Encouraged by this potentate, and accompanied by a missionary

established among the Betschuanas, they set out on their journey to his country. In their way they passed through Old Lattakoo. The first place they reached, (after six days' travelling) was *Meribohwey*, the capital of the Tammahas. The intervening country was well covered with long grass, which in many places reached to the bellies of the oxen; and a constant succession of trees, scattered about and beautifully clumped, put our travellers in mind of a gentleman's park in England. The temperature and the scenery had the feeling and appearance of an English summer. The rhinoceros, the lion, the camelopardalis, the guoo, the quacha, and all the larger species of wild beasts, common to this part of South Africa, frequently crossed their path, and haunted their nightly encampments. Their approach and entrance into *Meribohwey* are thus described:—"At length we cleared the wood and entered what resembled an extensive English common, when we observed scores of women and children running with all possible speed from the corn-fields to witness the novel sight of travelling-houses, or waggons. They all kept at a respectful distance, except a few boys, who had the boldness to approach within 20 yards of the waggons; for boldness it certainly was when all things are considered. The motion of the wheels appeared the chief attraction, and proved highly diverting to them. They no sooner saw a spoke pointing upwards, than immediately its position was reversed; this wonder they were noticing to each other as the waggons went forward. On drawing near to the town, a great number of the inhabitants came rushing forth armed with spears, battle-axes, and long sticks, wearing hairy skin caps, skin cloaks, and sandals, and all of them painted red. Altogether they presented a frightful appearance, though they certainly came to us as friends."—The population of this town is stated to be from 600 to 700 souls, the greater part of whom regarded the missionaries, and every thing belonging to them, with the utmost astonishment. From this place they continued their journey to *Mashow*, passing through extensive fields of caffre-corn till they reached a hill covered with mimosas, from which, says Mr Campbell, "we had a view of a country exceeding in beauty any thing I had yet seen in Africa." From this place, hills and valleys, richly clothed with wood, succeeded each other, till the city of *Mashow* appeared on an eminence, and shortly after the inhabitants, pouring forth in crowds to meet them. On entering they were led, as usual, to the great public enclosure, where his majesty, king Kossie, and his chiefs were assembled to receive them. Mr Campbell speaks of nine-and-twenty villages which he could see from *Mashow*, and estimates the population at 10,000 or 12,000, scattered over a circumference, mostly of corn-fields, of more than 20 miles. The people differ in nothing from the Betschuanas; but their houses are somewhat better built and more commodious, having in their front raised terraces, about three feet in width, and in the shape of a crescent. The women were observed to be somewhat smarter in their dress, and wore a profusion of beads round the neck and arms. Mr Campbell says, the *Mashows* inoculate in the forehead for the small-pox, a practice which they told him they derived from white people who lived in the N.E.,—the Portuguese, no doubt, at or about the Mozambique.

Other Tribes.] The *Matsarogwas*, to the W., on the lower confines of Kurumana, border upon the Hottentot Dammaras. To the N. of Murulong are the *Wanketzees*. The *Tammahas*, otherwise called Red *Briguas*, a very numerous colony, occupy several villages to the N.E. of

Matjapinga, to the S.E. of the Murulonga, and N. of the *Kharmankays*, a tribe of Hottentot-Coranas, with whom they live in most perfect harmony, frequently uniting in marriage, with a view of rendering their friendship more intimate. The people of *Khojas*, to the N.E. of the preceding, are also very numerous, but little known. Three days' journey to the N.E. of Wanketzees, and due N. of the Khojas, are stationed the *Mukhurusis*, under a chief renowned for his bravery. Lastly, to the N.E. of these inhabit the *Maguisis*, the most powerful and rich of the Betschuanas tribes. A Matjaping who had visited them, assured M. Lichtenstein, that they were numberless, like the sand. It is they who furnish to the others, knives, needles, ear-rings, and bracelets of iron and copper, which travellers have been so much astonished to find among these savages. They extract the metal from a chain of mountains lying between them and the *Mukhurusis*. The following are a few of the peculiarities of this race. A Betschuana, after his return from a journey, washes himself from head to foot, and has the hair of his head and beard shaven clean off, lest strangers should have subjected him to the power of witchcraft, sorcery, or any other evil. On a cloudy morning, while the corn is on the ground, no one must go into the fields, lest he should frighten away the rain; nor must the milk-tree be cut down at that time, as it would cause drought. Fond as they are of salt, they never take it out of the pond, but purchase it from others; and though they readily eat potatoes, they cannot be prevailed on to plant them, because they resemble nothing which has been handed down to them by their forefathers, to whose manners and customs they appear to be strongly, not to say superstitiously, attached. The women eat with their husbands at home, but are not allowed to be present at public feasts. If the wife should fail in providing a supper for her husband according to his liking, he proceeds to the door of the house, and certifies her negligence, with a loud voice, to the whole neighbourhood. If, on the contrary, the husband takes the correction of his wife into his own hands, she repairs to the same spot, and publishes her grievance to such of her neighbours as may choose to listen to it.

The Marootzes.] Our missionary traveller, Campbell, in 1821 penetrated as far as *Kurreechane*, the capital of the Marootzes, and was favourably received. The population of this town was estimated by him at 16,000 souls. When colonel Collins was in Caffreland, and among the Tambookies, in 1809, the articles of iron and copper, which he found among the savages, he supposed to have been furnished by the Portuguese at Delagoa Bay; but from the description which Mr Campbell has given of Kurreechane, the colonel appears to have been mistaken in this opinion. The manufactures of Kurreechane are found to have diffused themselves from the borders of the colony of the cape of Good Hope to the shores of Mozambique, and from Delagoa Bay to the wandering tribes on the opposite coast. The needles, bodkins, and other articles of a similar nature manufactured at Kurreechane, and found in abundance in the neighbourhood of Angra Pequena bay, strengthen the supposition that the Portuguese have for many years carried on an inland correspondence between their settlements on the eastern and western shores of Africa. The desire of keeping any thing in trade secret, indicates considerable elevation above savage life. Mr Campbell saw many founderies in Kurreechane; but he regrets that they were guarded with so much jealousy that he was not allowed to enter them. Kurreechane appears to be the Staffordshire, as

well as the Birmingham, of that part of South Africa. They manufacture pottery; and, in the shape and painting of their articles, show a superior degree of taste. They appear to excel in the making of baskets; and Mr Campbell found the walls of their houses ornamented with paintings of elephants, camelopards, shields, &c. About Kurreechane, and many other places visited by Mr Campbell, the height of the hills, the smooth regularity of their outline, and the indentations on their sides, afford sufficient indications of the presence of chalk, lime, &c. and of a secondary and consequently a fertile country. From the distance travelled by him, Kurreechane must lie near the latitude of twenty-four degrees south, and not at a great distance from the eastern coast of Africa. In this neighbourhood, some of the rivers were seen running to the westward, while others ran to the eastward, and in a S.S.E. direction. It is probable that some of the rivers seen on this occasion may be branches of the Manica, the Delagoa, or Machavanna, near the sources of those which empty themselves into the Delagoa Bay. Several large towns were reported to lie to the eastward of Kurreechane: the smoke of one or two of them was seen in the distance.

Connexion with the Great Desert and Congo.] From the travels of Campbell it appears that the farthest country to the N.W., known to the Betschuans or Boroolongs, is named *Mampoor*. The *Kallyharry* are a people living a month's journey to the N.W. of Lattakoo, from whom the latter procure the skins of the wild cat. North of the Orange river lies the country of the *Great Namaquas*, which, to about lat. 26° south, and long. 19° west, is watered by the tributary streams of the Fish and Orange rivers, and therefore tolerably fertile, but to the E. and N. of this lies the great southern Zahara, or desert, extending probably to the equator, and inhabited only by wandering Bushmen. This vast region of sand, studded here and there by trees, is bounded on the eastern side by the Betschuans, Marootzes, and by other tribes, which they denominate as follows:—N. of Kurreechane, the *Moquana*, *Bamangwatoo*; N.E. the *Macalaka*; E. *Bapalange*, *Massoona*; E. by S. *Bahatja*; S.E. *Basetza*, *Booropolong*, *Maribana*, *Babooklola*, *Bamoochopa*, *Bapoohe*; S.S.E. *Bapo*, *Bammatow*, *Balicana*, *Bahooba*, *Bapeeree*, *Buklokla*, *Moolehe*, *Moohoo-be-loo*, *Moomanyana*, *Mohampee*, *Bommaleetee*, *Peeree*. Besides these tribes, or nations, to the S.S.E., Barrow and Campbell ascertained, that great hordes of both native and Betschuana Bushmen inhabit the country S.E. of Lattakoo, immediately behind the Tambookas, and in a line drawn from Port Natal to Lattakoo. These Bushmen possess herds of cattle. The *Wanketzees* are situated to the W. of the Marootzes, from whom they are divided by a chain of mountains passing from N.E. to S.E.; they are commanded by a treacherous prince called Makabba, and at present bear the worst character of all the southern tribes except the Bushmen. Travelling from sunrise to sunset, *Mampoor*, situated on the sea-side, is two moons' journey from Lattakoo, and three moons when the travellers are encumbered with cattle, the plunder of these being the object of this distant march. The desert beyond Kallyharry bears mimosa trees, and others, unknown to the Lattakooes, somewhat resembling the willow. The surface of this great desert, which reaches from the Namaquas to Long Mountain and the Wanketzees, extending 1000 miles to the N., and 500 to the W. of Lattakoo, is not perfectly level, and though generally covered with sand, has tufts of withered grass in the hollows. The water-melon is

pretty copious; water is extremely scarce. There is a nation at its furthest extremity called *Quabes*. The extent of this desert, as obtained from natives, brings it to the 10th degree of southern latitude; in short, into the country of the *Giagas* or *Jagas* of Congo; who, it is evident, are nothing but the wandering Bushmen of the desert, and the desolating commandos of the Botachuanas and Booroolongs.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

THE African islands differ from those of America with regard to their magnitude and their arrangement. If we except Madagascar, none of them can be compared with the larger American islands; and no groups occur which can be compared with that of the West Indies.

THE MADEIRAS.] The Madeira group consists of *Madeira* properly so called, and *Porto Santo*, with a few small detached islets called the *Desertas*. These islands—which form probably the *Purpurarias* of the ancients—are situated as follows :

	Lat.	Long.
Madeira, . . .	32° 38' N.	16° 56' W.
Porto Santo, . . .	32° 58' N.	16° 25' W.

Madeira.] Madeira was discovered in 1344 by an English vessel, and re-discovered in 1419 by the Portuguese, who gave it its present name, which in their language signifies 'timber,' on account of the abundance of wood which they saw upon it. This island, according to a geometrical survey lately made, appears to be of the form of a parallelogram. Its mean length from E. S. E. to W. N. W. is about 37 miles, and its mean breadth 11 miles. It contains 407 square miles, or 260,480 acres; and is divided into 18 parishes. The number of inhabitants, according to a recent census, was 98,800.

In Madeira neither heat nor cold are ever troublesome. In January, when the tops of the hills are covered with snow, Fahrenheit's thermometer in Funchal, is generally about 74°; and, in autumn, it seldom rises higher than 75°. "I should think," says the author of 'Six Months in the West Indies,' "the situation of Madeira the most enviable on the whole earth. It insures almost every European comfort, together with almost every tropical luxury. Any degree of temperature may be enjoyed between Funchal and the Ice-house. The seasons are the youth, maturity, and old age of a never ending, still beginning spring. Here I found what I used to suppose peculiar to the garden of Eden, and the bowers of Acrasie and Arctida :—

" Blossoms and fruits at once of golden hue
 Appeared, with gay enamell'd colours mix'd."

"The myrtle, the geranium, the rose, and the violet, grow on the right hand and on the left in the boon prodigality of primitive nature. The geranium, in particular, is so common, that the honey of the bees becomes something like a jelly of that flower. I differ from most people in not liking it so well as the English honey, though it is far purer and more transparent. That of Barbadoes is finer than either." Twenty-five thousand pipes of wine, each containing 120 gallons, are made annually. Of this one-half is exported. The general price to dealers is £32 per pipe. One pound per pipe is added for every year during which the wine

is kept in the cellar. The grapes are of various species. Among the rest, is that from which is produced the celebrated Malmsey wine. Of this wine the annual produce is said to be 500 pipes. The price is about £60 per pipe. The climate and soil are favourable to the sugar-cane, but it is not cultivated. A few cinnamon trees are said to be found. The face of the country is mountainous, and according to Dr Gillan it appears, that, "there have been several craters in the island, and that eruptions have taken place from them at various and very distant intervals. This was particularly manifest at a place near the Brazen-head, where might easily be counted twelve different eruptions of lava from neighbouring craters." The mountainous land rises from every part towards a chain of mountains, the summit of which, called *Pico Ruivo*, is 5068 feet in height. Madeira is not infested with serpents, or any kind of noxious animals. Foxes and hares are equally unknown. On the coasts fish are plentiful, but oysters and herrings are not found. The inhabitants of Madeira are of a dark complexion and low stature,—a melange of Portuguese, Mulattoes and Negroes. Among all classes indolence is predominant. Salt fish from America is the chief article of food.—*Funchal*, the capital, is said to contain 15,000 inhabitants. It is described as being a mean dirty place, but considerable improvements have of late been attempted. The commerce consists almost entirely of the exportation of wine to England and the Indies. On this there is a duty imposed, as well as upon all imports, except provisions. The trade is chiefly in the hands of English merchants settled on the island.

Porto Santo.] Porto Santo, situated to the N. E. of Madeira, is only 15 miles in circumference. It consists of a steep mountain often enveloped in clouds, surrounded with a tract of low land, peopled by about 200 souls. It produces good wine and wheat, a few oxen and wild hogs, and a small quantity of honey and wax. The road often affords good anchorage, but it is destitute of a harbour. Porto Santo was discovered in 1418.

THE CANARIES.] The archipelago of the Canary Islands forms almost a part of Europe. Professor Ciampi, in a tract lately published, maintains that the Canary islands were known to the navigators of Florence and Genoa, as early as the year 1345.

Of these islands, seven deserve enumeration. Their geographical position and extent are as follow :—

	Lat.	Long.	Surface in Marine Square leagues.	Population in 1807.
Palma,	28° 37' N.	17° 50' W.	27	25,000
Ferro, (town)	27 47 N.	17 47 W.	7	5,700
Gomera,	28 5 N.	17 8 W.	14	8,200
Teneriffe (Peak),	28 17 N.	17 40 W.	73	81,000
Canary, (N. E. point),	28 18 N.	15 39 W.	60	66,000
Forteventura,	28 4 N.	14 31½ W.	63	12,000
Lancerota (E. point),	29 14 N.	13 26 W.	26	13,000
			<hr/> 270	<hr/> 302,900

Among the smaller islands may be mentioned *Graciosa*, *Roccas*, *Allegranza*, *St Clare*, *Infierno*, and *Lobos*.

Inhabitants.] The inhabitants of the Canaries, who are generally known by the name of *Islenos* or 'the islanders,' emigrate in great numbers to the coast of Caraccas, and to the Philippines. They are a lively and ingenious race; and are said to pronounce the Spanish language with

a peculiar sweetness. The aboriginal inhabitants of these islands were called *Guanches*, many of them perished in resisting their Spanish conqueror Alonso de Lugo, and by a plague which broke out in 1494. This fine nation was almost extinct at the commencement of the 17th century; and, Malte Brun affirms that, at this time, there does not exist throughout the Archipelago, one native of the pure race. Their language is supposed to have borne considerable analogy to that of the African Berbers.

Government.] The Canaries are governed by Spanish laws. The governor resides at Saint Croix in Teneriffe. The military establishment is returned at 12,000 men. The territorial revenue is said to amount to 14,391,735 francs, and to cover the expenses of administration.

Palma.] Palma is a hilly island; fertile and populous only on its coasts. Its capital is a handsome town of the same name. About 12,000 butts of wine are here made annually. Fruits are abundant, and cattle are said to thrive. This island was conquered by the Spaniards in 1460. In 1625, a volcano broke out here, which, being attended by an earthquake, made great devastation.

Ferro.] Ferro, or *Hierro*, an island which during a considerable period constituted the first meridian of geographers, is represented as a dry and barren spot, there not being more than three fountains in the whole island. The water principally used is collected in cisterns during the rainy season. A remarkable tree is described as having once existed on this island, which attracted the moisture from the atmosphere so as to afford an ample supply of water to the inhabitants. It appears to have been a *laurus Indica*; but it was destroyed by a dreadful hurricane in 1612.

Gomera.] Gomera abounds in corn, sugar, wine, and different kinds of fruits. It has an excellent harbour, upon which is situated a town likewise called Gomera.

Teneriffe.] Teneriffe is by far the most important of the Canary islands. Its length is about 70 miles; its mean breadth 22 miles. The coast is for the most part craggy, and surrounded with rocks. The interior is mountainous, particularly in the northern districts. Some of the mountains appear to have been volcanoes. The *Peak* has long been celebrated for its height, but travellers are by no means unanimous in their calculations respecting it. The Spanish writers affirm its altitude to be five miles, a height evidently extravagant. Dr Halley reduces it to two miles and a quarter. Mongez supposes it to be 900 toises: and Mr Johnstone calculated the elevation to be 2023 English fathoms, or two miles, two furlongs, and eighty-six yards, which shows that Halley's calculation was not far distant from the truth. De la Crenne makes it 1742 toises; and Humboldt, 12,072 feet.¹

¹ This mountain attracts the attention of all who visit the island; and many have ascended to its summit. Mr Johnstone says, that having ascended to a considerable height: his party "encamped on ground covered with pumice-stone, with a stream of water on each side; in front, a barren plain; the island of Grand Canary bearing S. E. as if rising out of an immense field of ice, formed by clouds below them. About four o'clock next morning, the first of August, the moon shined bright, and the weather clear, they began to ascend a kind of path, along the first great frustum, leading to the smaller and higher Sugar Loaf. The passage was steep and disagreeable, being covered with pumice-stone, which gave way at every step. In about an hour, they got to the Alta Vista, where it was necessary to climb over the lava, leaping from one large stone to another, till they arrived at the foot of the Sugar Loaf; here they rested about five minutes. They then began to ascend the Sugar Loaf. This was by much the most fatiguing part; it being exceedingly steep, and wholly consisting of small pumice-stones, so that the foot, at every step, sinks and slides back. They were obliged to take breath repeatedly. It was little more than six o'clock when they got upon the summit of the

The island of Teneriffe affords plenty of wine, oil, and corn. The greater part of the tropical fruits, and the most valuable of the fruits of Europe, are successfully cultivated. Cattle and game are plentiful. Hawks and parrots are found in great numbers, with swallows, sea-gulls, partridges, Canary birds, blackbirds, lizards, locusts, and dragon-flies. The climate is reckoned peculiarly healthy. The inhabitants are Spaniards. They are described as being an indolent race. The trade here, as in Madeira, is conducted for the most part by natives of Britain. The principal article exported is wine, of which about 25,000 pipes are shipped annually from Santa Cruz. The returns are made chiefly in British manufactures. The manufactures of the island are inconsiderable; they are said to consist chiefly of taffeties, gauze, coarse linens, blankets, and a little silk. The craggy shores render a descent upon this island difficult, and in several places the difficulty is increased by forts. The number of regular troops is about 300; but every person capable of bearing arms is enrolled in the militia. The revenues are raised from heavy duties, imposed

Sugar Loaf. At this time the clouds had gathered about a mile and a half perpendicular below. They were thick, and had a very striking effect, appearing like an immense extent of frozen sea, covered with innumerable hillocks of snow; above which the islands of Grand Canary, Palma, Gomera, and Hierro or Ferro, raised their heads. On the sun getting a little higher, the clouds disappeared, and opened to the view the coast around. The colours hoisted on the Peak, were distinctly seen by gentlemen in Oratava, through their telescopes. The prospect from the Peak is romantic and extensive, no other hill being of a height to intercept the view. The coast is perceived all around, and a distinct idea of the island formed. The N. W. coast appears to be well cultivated; but the S. E. seems dreary and barren. Within the summit of the Peak, is an excavation or caldron, not less than 80 feet in depth, into which the gentlemen descended; and gathered some sulphur, with which the surface is mostly covered. In many parts, the feet cannot rest upon the same spot above a minute, the heat penetrating quickly through the shoe. Smoke issues frequently from the earth. Just under the surface, is a soft reddish clay, so hot, that the hand introduced into it, must be quickly withdrawn. In the caldron, the sulphurous odour is very offensive; but on the ridge it may be easily endured. From this place they saw the town of Santa Cruz, and the shipping in the road, which is a distance, in a direct line, of about 25 miles. They continued two hours and a-half upon the summit of the Peak, without feeling any inconvenience from heat or cold. Soon after sunrise, the thermometer in the shade was at 51°. They descended the Sugar Loaf in a few minutes, running the whole way, which was found to be the best mode. At the foot of the Peak there were several caverns in the midst of lava, some filled with fine water, extremely cold, and frozen at the edges of the caverns. Others in the winter are filled with snow, over which the sun never shines; and thus, snow continues in them throughout the year." M. Mongez made an excursion to its summit in 1785: "The crater of the Peak of Teneriffe," he informs us, "is a true sulphur-pit, similar to those of Italy. It is about 50 fathoms long, and 40 broad, rising abruptly from east to west. At the edges of the crater, particularly on the under side, are many spiracles, or natural chimnies, from which there exhale aqueous vapours, and sulphurous acids, which are so hot as to make the thermometer rise from 9° to 34° of Reaumur. The inside of the crater is covered with yellow, red, or white argillaceous earth, and blocks of lava partly decomposed. Under these blocks are found superb crystals of sulphur; these are eight-sided rhomboidal crystals, sometimes an inch in length, and, I suppose they are the finest crystals of volcanic sulphur that have ever been found. The water that exhales from the spiracles is perfectly pure, and not in the least acid, as I was convinced by several experiments. The volatilization and cooling of liquors are here very considerable. Half a minute was sufficient for the dissipation of a pretty strong dose of ether. The action of acids on metals, earths, and alkalis was slow; and the bubbles which escaped during the effervescence were much larger than ordinary. The production of vitriols was attended with very singular phenomena. That of iron assumed all at once a very beautiful violet colour, and that of copper, was suddenly precipitated of a very bright blue colour. I examined the moisture of the air by means of the hygrometer of pure alkali, and of the vitriolic acid; and I thence concluded, as well as from the direction of the aqueous vapours, that the air was very dry; for at the end of three hours, the vitriolic acid had suffered hardly any change either in colour or weight; the fixed alkali remained dry, except near the edges of the vessel that contained it, where it was a little moist; and Saussure's hygrometer pointed to 64° as nearly as the impetuous wind which then blew would permit us to judge. Liquors appeared to us to have lost nothing of their small coherency at this height, a circumstance which contradicts all the tales that have hitherto been related on this head."

upon several articles of merchandise. After deducting the expenses of administration, Tenerife yields to the crown of Spain about £60,000 annually. *Santa Cruz*, the seat of government, contains about 10,000 inhabitants. *Laguna*, the ancient capital, has a delicious climate; and *Oratova* is charmingly situated.

Canary.] Canary, from which the whole group has been named, is in length 42, and in average breadth 27 miles. This island abounds in melons, pears, apples, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and peaches. The wine of this island is much celebrated. The air is healthy, and the soil is every where well-watered. The animals are oxen, sheep, goats, capons, hens, ducks, pigeons, and partridges. The chief city is *Palmas*, the residence of a bishop, whose living is said to be worth £10,000. It makes a very handsome appearance, and contains about 9,000 inhabitants. The village of *Gualdar* consists of grottoes cut in the rocks by the ancient natives.

Forteventura.] Forteventura is said to be 50 miles in length. Its breadth is very unequal, but where broadest does not exceed 2½ miles. It consists of two peninsulas, connected by an isthmus, 12 miles broad. *Belancuria*, the principal town, retains the name of the first modern conqueror of the Canaries.

Lanceroia.] This island commences the chain of the Canary islands on the E., and, like the neighbouring continent, experiences most destructive droughts. The land is high and volcanic. Wheat and barley are cultivated with considerable success; and dried goats' flesh is exported in considerable quantities to the neighbouring islands. The chief harbour, called *Porte de Noas*, is on the S. E. side of the island. *Rubicon*, or *Cayas*, as well as *Lanceroia*, is an inconsiderable place. Clavijo informs us, that the singular custom, also existing in Tibet, which allows a woman to have several husbands, is found here.

THE CAPE VERD ISLANDS.] The Cape Verd Islands, so called from the cape on the neighbouring continent, are 10 in number, and arranged in a semicircular form. Of these islands, the following are the chief:

	Latitude.	Longitude.
St Jago, (Praya Bay).....	14° 56' N.	23° 29' W.
Bonavista,	16 6 N.	22 47½ W.
Mayo,	15 10 N.	23 5 W.
St Nicholas,	16 32 N.	24 10 W.
St Antonio,	17 N.	25 W.
St Philip de Fuego,	14 56½ N.	24 28 W.
Brava,	14 52 N.	24 59 W.

In all these islands the atmosphere is hot but humid, and in some of them very unhealthy during the rainy season. Some of them are fertile; others, stony and barren. The kinds of grain chiefly cultivated are rice and Indian corn. The fruits are vines, bananas, lemons, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, cocoa-nuts, figs, melons, with the greater part of such fruits as are common within the tropics. Agriculture is in a wretched state here. Monkeys, baboons, and civet-cats, are numerous. The tame animals are: horses, asses, mules, cows, sheep, goats, and hogs. The sea on the coast abounds with fish, and land-tortoises are so numerous as to afford a considerable article of traffic.

The Portuguese are proprietors of the Cape Verd Islands, which were discovered in 1450 by Antony Noli, a Genoese in the service of Portugal.

The inhabitants profess the Roman Catholic religion. The natives are Negroes, apparently of the Yolof race, but have adopted the Portuguese religion and language. The town of St Jago is the seat of government. The garrison consists of about 300 free blacks commanded by Portuguese officers. The total population has been estimated at 42,000 souls.

St Jago.] St Jago, the largest and most populous of the Cape Verd Islands, contains 12,000 inhabitants. It is a mountainous country; but the plains and valleys are at least as fertile as any of the islands in this group. Some cedar-trees exist here, and cotton is said to be plentiful. The inhabitants have little trade, and are consequently poor. They manufacture a small quantity of striped cotton-cloth.

Bonavista.] Bonavista is mountainous in the interior. On the S.W. it has a good road and harbour. Much indigo is spontaneously produced here; and cotton might be reared in great quantities, were not the inhabitants too indolent to attempt agriculture. The number of inhabitants is said to be about 8,000.

Mayo, &c.] Mayo island produces cattle and cotton.—The island of *Fuego* has a very active volcano, which sometimes makes furious eruptions. The island of *Brava* or *St John* produces excellent wine and a large quantity of saltpetre. These three islands, with that of St Jago, form a chain, whose direction is from E. to W.

The Sea of Herbs.] To the north of the Cape Verd islands, the waters of the ocean disappear under a thick bed of sea-weed, which, like a floating meadow, is extended as far as the 25th parallel, and occupies a space of 60,000 square leagues. Ships disengage themselves from it with difficulty. Other fields of sea-weed are also seen in parts of the sea more to the N.W. Some persons have conceived that this phenomenon proves the ancient existence in these parts of an *Atlantis* long since swallowed up.

ISLANDS IN THE GULF OF GUINEA.] In the gulf of Guinea, that part of the Atlantic Ocean by which Guinea is bounded on the south, are situated many small islands. The chief of them, with regard to size, appear to be *St Thomas*, *Prince's Island*, and *Fernando Po*.

St Thomas.] St Thomas is said to lie immediately under the equator; but according to the best maps, its southern extremity is more than 10' to the N. of the line. The same maps place it in 7° E. long. though it is generally said to be in 8° E. long. Its diameter is 30 miles. The climate is unhealthy, but the soil is fertile. The cattle are said to be of a larger size than those on the coast of Guinea. It was discovered in 1429, and belongs to the Portuguese.

Prince's Island.] Prince's Island, generally laid down in 3° 6' N. lat. and 6° 40' E. long. likewise belongs to the Portuguese. It is mountainous and woody, and abounds with cattle and all the varieties of tropical fruit.

Fernando Po.] The island of Fernando Po, or Fernão-do-Po, is situated in the Bight of Benin, about 15 leagues from the coast of Upper Guinea, to the W. of the embouchure of the Camarones, and to the S. of that of Cross, in 3° 28' N. lat. and 8° 30' E. long. It received its name from a gentleman in the service of Alphonzo V. of Portugal, who discovered it in 1741. It was ceded by Portugal to Spain in 1778; but an attempt is now in progress for the formation of a British settlement on this island. About ten years ago, Fernando Po was visited by captain Kelly, of the Pheasant sloop of war, who entered a noble bay on its N.W. side, which he has described in these terms:—"Next to the bay of Naples, I know of no place more capable of being converted into a finished picture

by the hand of art and industry than this. Let only the immense forest on the slope give place to cultivated plantations of sugar-canes, the brow of the hill be studded with coffee-trees, and a town of sufficient importance to form the capital of the island be built on the rising ground near the east angle of the bay, where a river, navigable for boats drawing seven or eight feet of water, would flow beneath it,—and Fernando Po would far surpass any of the islands of the British possessions in the West Indies.” To this spot captain Kelly gave the name of *George’s Bay*. The appearance of the island from the sea is extremely beautiful. Its length from north to south is about 80 miles, and its breadth about 20. Two high and peaked mountains—one of them remarkably so—the black sand on the beach—and the scorise and other substances found here, which have evidently undergone the action of fire, denote this island to be of volcanic origin. From the northern extremity the land rises in a gradual slope to a ridge of hills, which connects the two peaked mountains; and the whole surface of the slope is covered with a forest of trees of the most luxuriant growth. Beyond this region of wood, and the crest of the hills, the villages of the natives are situated on the side of the mountains, as far up as about one-third of their height. Numberless little streams trickle down the sides of the hills into George’s Bay; and, besides these, three very considerable rivers, at all of which ships may water with the utmost facility, discharge themselves into the bay, one at each extremity, and one about the middle of the bay. Although the thermometer has been observed to rise to 80 deg. in the afternoon, yet the land and sea breezes give to the atmosphere a freshness quite unknown on the adjacent coast. Our informant, who visited this island in the ship *Huskisson*, in October 1828, assures us, that he observed no appearance of any of the loathsome diseases to which the Negroes of Western Africa are subject, among the many hundreds of natives who flocked down to the coast on the first arrival of his ship. The productions are rice, fruits, sugar-cane, cotton, tobacco, manioc, and yams of a remarkably fine flavour. Besides these vegetable productions, domestic animals, sheep, goats, and fowls, are numerous, so that the means of subsistence are abundant. The price of a sheep or goat is a common knife of the value of 3d.; and a piece of iron hoop, a couple of inches in length, will purchase two or three of the finest fowls. The Spaniards affected to consider the inhabitants of Fernando Po as a ferocious people; our informant declares that, on the contrary, he always found them good-humoured and inoffensive, and that during his stay on the island in his voyage he had not the least occasion to conclude them either treacherous or vindictive. They are indeed a fine race of people, of middle stature, with well-formed limbs, and a very muscular and active frame. Their countenances are somewhat peculiar, the general contour of their face being that of a square with the angle rounded off. The nose, the lips, and the quick and piercing eye, approach much nearer to the features of the European than to those of the African; and hence some have concluded them to be of Portuguese origin. They have woolly hair, which, being twisted and thickly daubed with red clay, appears like so many ropes dangling behind them. The hue of their skin is evidently black; but their limbs are always completely besmeared with a mixture of red clay and palm oil, and their faces with a fine pulverized yellow ochre, which gives them the appearance of mulattoes. The only mark of distinction which was observed amongst them was that of a hat and feather worn by one person, which seemed to point him out as a chief

or superior. The men wear a straw-hat, oddly adorned with a pair of ram's horns in front. Married people of both sexes wear a fringe about 9 inches broad, made of a species of rush or of leaves, round their loins. The unmarried neglect all clothing, and go about in a state of perfect nudity, unconscious of indecency, and free from insult. Their language is not less different from those of the continental negroes than their manner and appearance; neither does it appear that the superstitious veneration of the Fetish, so universal along the western coast of Africa, is at all known in this island. Their houses are of richer work, and all nearly of the same size and plan. They are built round an open area, and each is surrounded with a railed fence or enclosure, within which the cattle of the owner are shut up at night. The British flag is now hoisted on *Clarence Mount* on the N.E. side of the island: our government, considering the station eligible for the ships employed in putting down the slave trade, seem disposed to encourage the formation of a settlement upon this island, which has been long abandoned by both Portuguese and Spaniards.

ASCENSION.] Proceeding in a south-western direction, we arrive at the small island called Ascension. It is situated in $7^{\circ} 57'$ S. lat. and $13^{\circ} 59'$ W. long. It is remarkable chiefly as being a station at which ships touch in their voyages to and from the East Indies; and is rapidly rising into usefulness and importance, having been made to produce abundance and variety of vegetables, pumpkins, water-melons, musk-melons, bananas, and Cape gooseberries. Already the whole African squadron refit and water here. There is no custom-house, port, or anchorage charges of any description; and all merchant-ships in distress are ordered to be supplied at the same rate at which Government lay in their provisions for the navy. A rapid improvement is every day taking place in agriculture and horticulture, as well as road-making, building, &c. Turtle are to be had all the year round, but the season for turning them is from December to June; ships are supplied with them for the value of about 3d. per lb. of meat, without bone or shell.

ST HELENA.] Turning to the S.E. we find St Helena, in $15^{\circ} 55'$ S. lat. and $5^{\circ} 49'$ W. long. It is a small spot, only 28 miles in circumference, and above 1200 miles distant from any shore. The first appearance presented by St Helena, on approaching it from the sea, is desolate and forbidding in the extreme. The island, which is nearly circular in form, and in no part more than 10 miles across, seems composed entirely of dark grey and brown rocks. As the ship sails round it, the observer's eye lights only on a succession of barren cliffs, steep precipices, and lofty peaks, thrown together, as it were, in wild disorder:

“ Craggs, knolls, and mounds, confusedly hurled—
The fragments of an earlier world.”

In short, nothing can be more dreary and savage than the aspect of the coast; there is no trace of human habitation, not even the least verdure to enliven the scene; and, but for the batteries which are discovered on a nearer approach, one might suppose the island uninhabited, and indeed uninhabitable. These batteries are constructed of stone, cut out of the rocks which surround them, and of which, when first seen, they appear to form a part. Some of them are built on heights, which, from the sea, seem inaccessible to man; they are all provided with heavy guns, more of which are slung in chains on the pinnacles above. These

fortifications command, in every direction, the approach to the island, which must be a second Gibraltar in natural, if not in artificial, strength.

The native plants of Europe as well as Asia—the Chinese loquat and lichi, the mango and guava of India, the shaddock and plantain of the Eastern islands, flourish by the side of the English apple, walnut, and peach; nor are the fruits of Africa and America entirely wanting; for the dates and figs of the Cape grow along with the oranges and limes of Brazil. Besides these, the island produces grapes, melons, pears, pomegranates, jambus or rose-apples, strawberries, pumpkins, and other fruits; although most of these were out of season while we were there. Blackberries were introduced some years ago as an experiment, and succeeded so well that they now grow wild, and in many places the bushes that overhang the road are covered with them. Potatoes, cabbage, and several other kinds of Europe vegetables grow here in perfection. Water-cresses are plentiful. There is fine pasturage in some places, particularly on the S. side of the island.

The houses are, in general, white-washed, and roofed with slates or tiles, which, combined with the bright green of the trees thinly interspersed among them, gives the town a pleasing and lively appearance, gratefully relieving the eye and mind after they have been fatigued by contemplating the rugged masses of dingy rocks which form the rest of the scene. The ships anchor close to the town, for the water deepens considerably at a little distance. There are two landing-places, which are provided with cranes for the use of the shipping. It is at times difficult to land, on account of the violence of the surf, which, some years ago, broke in upon the beach, and caused great damage to the buildings. There is but one principal street in the town, which runs in a straight direction from the sea up the valley or ravine. No great regularity has been observed in the construction of the houses; they are built chiefly of the rough-hewn rock of the island, and, when not white-washed, have a singular rather than a neat appearance. On the whole, James'-town resembles some small country towns in England. The valley is not level, but rises rather abruptly from the sea, and being paved with rough stones, is somewhat fatiguing to ascend on foot; carriages are, however, not in general use. The house which Napoleon inhabited is distant about a mile and a half from his grave; it is called *Longwood-house*, and was formerly the summer residence of the lieutenant-governors of St Helena. Longwood-house is 1,762 feet above the level of the sea; at a short distance is a signal-post, or flag-staff, communicating with the town and Government-house, from whence the sea is visible to a great extent, and ships approaching the island from the northward or eastward may be seen, in clear weather, 20 leagues off: this point is 2,272 feet above the sea.

'The tomb,' the grand object of curiosity to all who now visit St Helena, is situated in a small valley, or rather ravine, called *Sane Valley*, from the name of the first proprietor. The spot is still private property, being close to the dwelling of one of the inhabitants, and indeed forming part of his plantation. A small piece of rising ground, of nearly circular form, perhaps one hundred feet in diameter, and covered with grass, has been enclosed with a wooden palisade, and nearly in the centre of this the grave of Napoleon lies. It is covered with three flat dark-coloured stones, which were removed for the purpose from the kitchen-floor of the house he had inhabited, and surrounded by a high iron railing; there is no inscription, nor indeed any thing like a monument; two weeping willows grow within

the enclosure, and hang over the grave, and a row of scarlet geraniums is planted outside. This spot was a favourite retreat of Napoleon, who frequently walked here from Longwood, and passed hours under the trees, reading, or conversing with some of his suite: he was buried here at his own desire. Close by is a spring of the purest water, issuing from the rock, and from which he always drank: one of his servants came here daily with two silver bottles, which were filled at the spring for his use. Napoleon was buried in full uniform, as he lay in state, with high boots, and a military hat; the body is enclosed in three coffins; some pieces of plate, &c. were buried with him, according to Catholic custom. It is not surprising that this spot should have been selected by the great captive for the place of his last rest; it is very sequestered, and an air of romantic quiet pervades it. There is a house on a height above, but it is not seen from the grave, neither is that of the proprietor of the ground; the approach to the tomb is guarded by a gate usually kept locked; and the old keeper has a small hut built of wood, for his abode, on the other side of the little mound in which the grave lies: no other vestige of human habitation is visible, and no sound disturbs the awful, yet serene stillness, that reigns around this humble resting-place of fallen greatness, and 'high ambition, lowly laid.'

TRISTAN D'ACUNHA.] Turning again to the S. we discover the island of Tristan d'Acunha, apparently the largest and most fertile of a group of three islands which are situated between the cape of Good Hope and the coast of Brazil. Tristan d'Acunha is about 12 miles in circumference. The shores of the other islands are so wild and dangerous, that it is impossible to approach them, except in the calmest weather. The one is called *Nightingale Island*, and the other *Inaccessible*. The north-east aspect of Tristan d'Acunha (the only navigable side of the island) is very striking. At the foot of an almost perpendicular mountain, about 9,000 feet high and thickly covered with brushwood, is a fertile plain of considerable extent, that stretches along the shore. Wild boars, wild goats, and a species of black cock, abound on the island; while in the deep waters among the rocks there are fish of almost every description. The mountains are literally covered with sea-bens, petrels, albatrosses, and the various other feathered tribes which haunt the southern Atlantic.

MADAGASCAR.] Madagascar is the largest island belonging to the African continent, and may be classed among the largest islands with which we are acquainted. Its length is said to be 840 geographical miles, and its medial breadth 220 geographical miles. In the best maps it is laid down between 12° and 25° S. lat. and between 44° and 51° E. long. It is separated from Africa, by what is called the strait of Mozambique, or Mozambico. All along the E. side of Madagascar, a bank of soundings exists, extending from 3 to 5 miles off shore, of regular depths, and containing no hidden dangers, so that a navigator visiting this coast with common attention, will, in any part, have sufficient notice of his approximation. The south end is principally composed of lofty mountains. A bank of regular soundings lies off the S. extremity, on which 50 fathoms may be gained four or five miles from the shore. The coast is bold, barren, and rugged. The Star Bank is a dangerous reef, partly above water, with a furious sea beating on its S. and W. sides; during the S. W. monsoon it forms a fine spacious anchoring place. Several small islands lie on the S. W. end of Madagascar, hitherto little known. The whole island is divided by a chain of mountains, passing from north to south, in the direc-

tion of the island, but nearer the eastern than the western shore. The highest parts of this chain are said to be *Botistmeni*, in the south, and *Vigagora*, in the north. The country is almost every where plentifully watered by streams, having their sources in these mountains; so that it is generally fertile, and presents many picturesque landscapes. Many parts are covered with immense forests.

History.] The island of *Madagascar*, the indigenous name of which is asserted to be *Madecasse*, can claim its share among the traditions handed down to the Greeks and Romans, concerning the immense *Taprobane*, which, according to the accounts of the natives, was extended so far to the south, that neither the constellation of the Bear nor *Pleiades* were visible, and 'the sun appeared to rise from the left.' These particulars, as well as its dimensions, and the great lake situated in the centre of the island, agree with *Madagascar*, while the latitudes marked by *Ptolemy* apply to *Sumatra*, and all the other circumstances lead us to *Ceylon*. In the island *Pheboi*, so named in a writing attributed to *Aristotle*, may be recognized the Arabic name of *Phambalou*, given to this island. The *Arabians* probably visited it in their earliest voyages to *India*, and long before the time of *Mahomet*. The first certain idea of it was transmitted to us by *Marco-Polo*, the *Portuguese*, who discovered it in 1506, under the command of *Lorenzo Almeida*, and gave it the name of *Saint-Laurent*. The *French* called it *Dauphine*.

Productions.] The produce consists of sugar-canes, cocoa-nuts, bananas, tobacco, indigo, pepper, gum lacca, benzoin, amber, ambergris, and a species of flax which appears to be the same with that found in *New Zealand*. The island is said to be destitute of horses, elephants, lions, or tigers; but cattle, buffaloes, and sheep, are numerous. Among the birds we notice the rare black parrot. Emeralds, sapphires, topazes, and blood-stones, have been enumerated among the minerals.

Inhabitants.] According to *Benyowski*, the people of *Madagascar* are divided into seven classes: First, the *ampansacabe*, or sovereigns. Second, the *rohandrians*, or princes. "The third order consists of the *voadziri*, or lords of a district, composed of several villages. The fourth order consists of the *lahovohits*, or chiefs of villages. The fifth order, *ondzatsi*, who are freemen, and compose the attendants or followers of the *rohandrians*, *voadziri*, or *lahovits*. The sixth order consists of *ombiasses*, or learned men; and this order forms the warriors, workmen, physicians, and divines: these last possess no charge. The seventh order consists of *ampurias* or slaves. These orders preserve a regular gradation, respecting which it would be very difficult to give a detailed account. They live in the manner we read of concerning the ancient patriarchs. Every father of a family is priest and judge in his own house, though he depends upon the *Lahovit*, who superintends his conduct. This last is answerable to his *Voadziri*, and the *Voadziri* to the *Rohandrian*." It appears, from the same writer, that the inhabitants of *Madagascar*, generally known by the name of *Madagasses*, are not willing to live in detached habitations. They generally collect into small villages. These villages are fortified by palisades and a ditch, and have a guard at the place of entry. The houses are neatly built, and thatched with straw or leaves of the palm-tree. The mansions of the principal men are said to be built with much symmetry and elegance. The *Madagasses* are divided into three distinct races. The first, called *Zafe Ibrahim*, or descendants of *Abraham*, from what circumstance it would be difficult to determine, are of a brown colour. The

second, called *Zafrañini*, are said to have emigrated from some other country to this island, about six centuries ago. The third, called *Zafu Casembou*, arrived at the island at a period still later, and are supposed to be of Arabian extraction. It may be remarked, however, that all these races use the same language, and observe the same customs. They must, therefore, either have come from the same country; or, for some reason, the later tribes must have adopted the language and customs of the former. The Madagasses have among them several orders of artists, distinguished by different names, and claiming different degrees of honour. The first, and most respectable class, consists of such artists as work in iron and steel. They are said to have made considerable proficiency in their business. The second class consists of goldsmiths, who make such ornaments as are worn in the island. The third class consists of potters. The fourth of turners in wood. The fifth of carpenters, who are said to be expert, and to make use of the rule, the plane, and the compasses. The sixth are ropemakers, who make ropes of hemp, and of different kinds of bark of trees. The seventh consists of weavers, who are always women: this trade being considered as disgraceful to a man. To these may be added the Ombiasses, or literary class, who, without engaging in any manual labour, give their advice, chiefly as physicians; and the class of comedians and dancers. We are not informed whether or not these professions be hereditary. The former gradation of classes, with regard to civil authority, and this gradation of the different professions, have been supposed to have a resemblance to the casts of Hindoestan; and have induced some to imagine, that the Madagasses must be a colony of Hindoos. They believe in the existence of two great principles; the one good, the other bad; the good principle they name *Tan-har*, or Great. To *Tan-har* they build no temples, neither do they represent him under any visible forms, but they offer sacrifices to him. The bad principle is named *Agnat*. To him they always offer a portion of the sacrifices offered to the good principle. The head of the family or chief performs the office of priest.

It is extremely difficult to ascertain the population of a country divided into so many different tribes. Abbe Rochon, in the year 1770, estimated the population at about 4,000,000. Rondaux states it about 3,000,000, and M. Balbi at 2,000,000; but all these are mere conjectures. The exertions of Missionaries have done much to civilize this country. In 1820 there were not perhaps more than six persons who could write the Madagash language, even in the Arabic character; but now there are about 4,000 persons who can write and read it in the European character.

The French have frequently, and very recently, attempted to make a settlement in Madagascar; but their attempts have not hitherto been attended with any success. When captain Owen's expedition visited Port Dauphin in 1825, which was formerly the chief French settlement in this island, they found only two French merchants in the place.

THE COMORAS.] The Mozambique Channel has been much forsaken of late years, on account of the uncertainty of the situation of its numerous shoals and islets; and, by being neglected, has acquired a character which it by no means deserves. It shortens the distance, very materially, to or from India, for all vessels leaving, or bound to, ports west of Madras; and the operation of the currents which exist here are not to be dreaded now, when the use of chronometers has become universal. The islands of this channel, except the *Comoras*, are of a low flat description, and of coral origin. The water is unfathomable to a very short distance

around them all. They afford in general shelter and anchorage upon that side which, by change of monsoon, becomes the leeward; but the weather-most coast is constantly beaten by a lofty and most furious surf. The *Grand Comora*, the principal of the group, is a primitive mountain of great elevation, rising abruptly from the sea. Comora has been abandoned by shipping, of late years, in favour of *Johanna*, or *Hinguan*, the anchorage at the latter place being more eligible, the watering place more convenient, produce more plentiful, and, upon the whole, the people more civilized. A colony of Arabs have been settled here from a remote period. It formerly paid tribute to Mozambique, but that has long been discontinued. The country exhibits every charming variety of vale, mountain, and plain. Its loftiness commands a most extensive sea view, including the neighbouring islands; and the forests contain a great quantity of game of several kinds. The natives of the coast of Africa form their ideas of Europeans from what they see on board the slave vessels or palm oil traders; but the Johannese derive their notions of the English people from the Indianmen. They are apt to imagine there is no limit to an Englishman's wealth, and therefore conclude they have only to ask to receive. They are a fine-looking people; most of them are respectably, and some even elegantly, dressed; there appears no real want among them; but, from their travelled countrymen and others, they have imbibed a strong desire for European conveniences and Asiatic luxuries. All description of finery is highly prized among them. These islanders stain the extremities of their fingers with an intense red fluid, and their teeth are almost darkened to blackness, by chewing the leaf of a species of *anacardium*. Their dress is a white cotton chemise, reaching below the knee, bound in round the waist with a coloured sash, in which is carried a dagger. Necklaces of various kinds are worn; the turban is negligently thrown over the head, and part of the cloth of which it is formed hangs down over the left side, not altogether ungracefully. The Sultan, and principal people, differ not materially from others in their dress, except on gala days, when a splendid mantle or cloak is worn, and also shoes or sandals. The arms of these people are still only the lance and the bow. The town of *Johanna* is of moderate size. The houses are of clay or stone, and, in general, thatched with palm leaves. A castle or fort stands on a hill above the town, and completely commands it, provided with a few rusty, unserviceable, light guns. The town formerly stood about one mile farther east, but was removed hither on account of its more eligible position for defence. The principal building is a mosque. The true site of the town of *Johanna* is $12^{\circ} 9' S.$ lat. and $44^{\circ} 19\frac{1}{2}' E.$ long.

Situated under a fine sky, the *Comora* isles enjoy a very healthy climate. The champaign country every where exhibits the appearance of a luxurious vegetation. At *Johanna* every defile is a garden watered by a limpid stream. The summit of each eminence is covered with wood, and its foot is shaded by groves of cocoa-trees, tufts of bananas, mangoes, orange and lemon-trees, which intersect fields of potatoes and yams. The Indian purging-nut, the guava, the tamarind, and other trees less known, adorn the sides of the hills; wild indigo and the sugar-cane are abundant. The principal domestic animals are the goat and zebra. In the fields are found pintados and quails, as well as several species of turtle-doves. The brown maki appears to be the only inhabitant of the forests. Numerous flocks of a species of hawk fly near the surface of the sea. In the *Comora* isles none of those troublesome insects are found that desolate India,

the coast of Africa, and the island of Madagascar; but the fields swarm with small mice. The population is composed of Negroes intermixed with Arabs, who, at the period of their numerous emigrations about the 12th century, established themselves in these islands as well as on the coasts of Africa and at Madagascar.

BOURBON.] The Isle of Bourbon, or *Mascarenha*, is situated in 20° 5' 43" S. lat. and 55° 20' 15" E. long. It is about 60 miles in length and 45 in breadth. It was discovered in 1505 by Pedro de Mascarenhas. In 1642 it was taken possession of by the French; in whose possession it remains. It is divided into 11 communes, which are governed, as in France, by a mayor, one or two adjuncts, and a municipal council. The governor and principal authorities reside at St Denis. The climate is mild. When the sun approaches the Arctic Pole, the higher mountains in this island are covered with snow, and fires become necessary in the dwelling-houses. The longest day is 13 hours and 16 minutes; the shortest 10 hours and 44 minutes; there is scarcely any twilight. Bourbon is one of the most salubrious countries in the world. This island appears to have been originally formed by a great volcanic eruption; the crater of the volcano is yet visible, and is perpetually shifting its position. The population in 1822 amounted to 17,037 whites, 5,149 free blacks, and 45,375 slaves. The culture of the soil is exclusively performed by the slave population. The productions are sugar, coffee, treacle, and cacao; wheat, manioc, potatoes, yams, and French beans; woods and timber. In 1824 the French vessels which entered the port of Bourbon amounted to 117, carrying 28,168 tons, and the number of foreign vessels 107, or 11,707 tons. The value of the cargoes imported into the island that year was 8,944,498 francs, and the value of the exportations 10,341,272 francs.

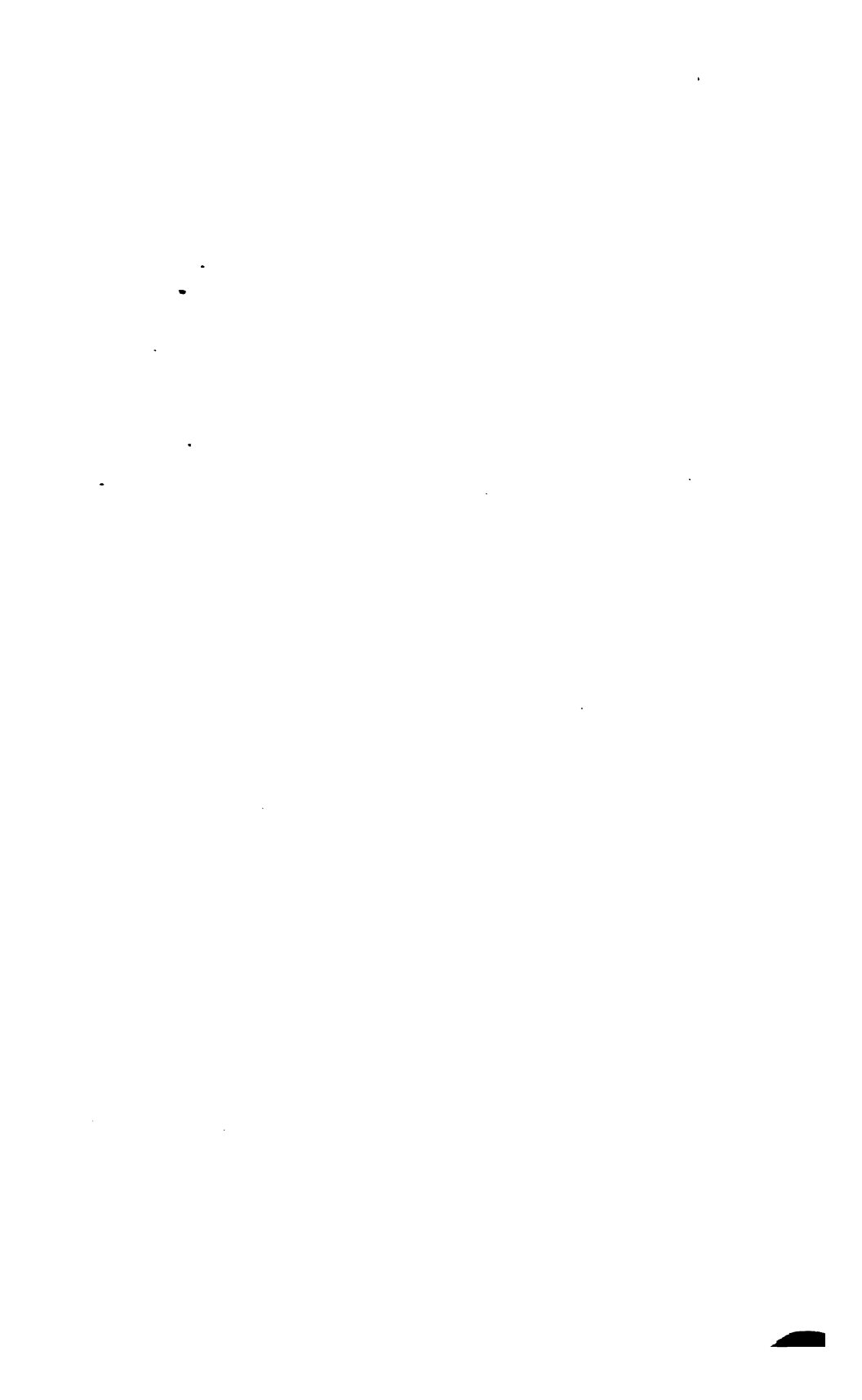
THE MAURITIUS.] Mauritius, sometimes called the Isle of France, is situated in 20° 9½' S. lat. and in 57° 29½' E. long. It is about 135 miles in circumference. The climate is healthy; and the soil, though stony, is tolerably fertile. The country is mountainous, and some of the mountains are of such a height, that they are often covered with snow. The whole is well watered; and produces wheat, rice, maize, sugar, indigo, cotton, coffee, and cloves, the rearing of which attracts the chief attention of the planters. The manioc or bread-fruit tree, which was introduced in 1797, and maize or Indian corn, thrive well here. The productions of this colony on an average of years are as follows: coffee 6000 bales of 100 lbs., indigo 300,000 lbs., cotton 2000 bales of 250 lbs., sugar 20,000,000 lbs., cloves 20,000 lbs. The greatest quantity of sugar exported from this island since it came into our possession was in 1823, when it amounted to 27,400,887 lbs. According to the Abbe de la Caille, the surface of this island measures 432,680 acres, of which 232,680 are reckoned arable, but only about 80,000 acres have yet been brought into cultivation. In 1814 the trade of the island is said to have employed 3000 tons of shipping. From a census in 1816, the population was as follows:—whites 14,233, free persons of colour 4298, slaves 53,288; total 71,819. This island was discovered by the Portuguese. The Dutch took possession of it, and called it Mauritius, from prince Maurice their Stadtholder. When they took possession of the Cape of Good Hope, their settlement on this island was abandoned. It remained without a possessor till 1715, when the French seized it, and in their hands, though under the management of a company till 1767, it soon became an important military station, at which their own ships were sheltered and equipped; and from which, in time of

war, they were enabled to annoy with great effect the British East India trade. In order to get rid of this annoyance, and to possess themselves of a station which afforded such vast advantage to their enemies, the British fitted out an expedition from the East Indies in 1810, under the direction of vice-admiral Bertie, and lieutenant-general Abercrombie. On the 29th of November, the troops effected a landing; and on the 4th December, a capitulation was signed, by which the whole island, with an immense quantity of stores and valuable merchandise, six large frigates, and 30 sail of other vessels, with above 200 pieces of ordnance in the forts and batteries, were surrendered to the British. This valuable acquisition was confirmed to Britain by the treaty of Paris, 1814. The principal town is *Port Louis*, which is strongly fortified, and contains about 6000 houses. It has a safe port, capable of containing 50 large vessels; and may be as commodiously visited by our outward-bound ships for India, as *St Helena* is on their return. There is a large theatre here, which is open every night for balls or theatricals: and a public garden, containing the vegetable productions of every climate. Belin published a French map of this island and of Bourbon in 1763; but the best and most recent is that by Lisle Geoffroy.

Dependencies on the Mauritius.] Beginning from the E. and proceeding N. the principal isles dependent upon Mauritius are the following:—*Rodrigues*, distant about 300 miles, in a direction E. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. It is about 18 miles in length from E. to W. and 3 or 4 from N. to S.; but contains only 9000 acres adapted for cultivation. The number of inhabitants is 123.—On the bank of *St Brandon*, which is 72 miles in circumference, and situated in 16° 28' S. lat. and 59° 35' E. long., are 12 islands, mere masses of coral, calculated only to shelter the crews of small fishing vessels.—*Diego Garcia* is distant from Mauritius 1,176 miles N. E. 5° E. In shape it resembles a horse-shoe, and forms a capacious bay, capable of containing a great number of vessels in safety. It produces abundance of cocoa-trees and fire-wood. The population is 275.—*Les Six Isles* are distant 72 miles nearly N. W. from Diego Garcia. Their surface is of small extent, and is nothing but a compound of sand and coral very little elevated above the surface of the water.—*Les Trois Freres* are situated in 6° 10' S. lat. and 71° 28' E. long. Coconuts, fish, and turtle, are easily procured here.—The *Onse*, or *Salomon Isles*, are distant 1,275 miles N. E. from Mauritius. The soil is good, and they are yet free from rats, which swarm in all the preceding islands. They encircle a basin, which affords good anchorage.—*Les Peros Banhos* are 22 islets, about 1,260 miles N. E., a few degrees N. from Port Louis: the largest is not more than 2 miles long. About 120 persons reside here, who are all engaged in a manufactory of oil for fishing.—*Isle Legoun* offers nothing remarkable; the existence of *Isle George* and *Roquepis* is doubtful.—From the N. proceeding westward, we encounter *Agalega* in 10° 29' 50" S. lat. and 56° 55' E. long. It is about 561 miles N. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. W. from the Mauritius. It is about 11 miles in length from N. to S. by 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ broad, and is inhabited by about 200 individuals, who are employed in the manufactory of oil.—*Coetivi* is about 9 miles in circumference, and has about 500 acres capable of producing maize. It is situated in 7° 15' S. lat. and 56° 23' E. long.—The *Seychelles*, 30 in number, form an Archipelago, the most considerable of the dependencies of the Mauritius, distant about 115 miles N. N. W. from Port Louis, and comprehended between 3° 38' and 5° 45' S. lat., and between 55° 15' and 56° 10' E. long. *Mahé*, the prin-

cipal, is from 75 to 78 miles in circumference. There are 72,768 acres of land granted in it. It is hilly, intersected with ravines, and full of rocks. The population is about 6000. It was to this spot that Napoleon, when first consul, exiled some turbulent friends of liberty, falsely accused as accomplices with the contrivers of the infernal machine. A quarrel with the inhabitants, probably on the subject of politics, was the cause of these unfortunate persons being again exiled. Some of them foundered on the Comora Islands and were lost, others gained the African continent, where they probably suffered a slower and more painful death; at last, destiny also conveyed to an African island the man by whose orders so many victims had been exiled to the centre of the Seychelle islands.—*St Anne* is inhabited by 246 persons.—*Isle Praslin* is next to Mahé in size; but has scarcely a third of its soil fit for cultivation. Its population amounts to about 400.—*Silhouette* is inhabited by about 136 persons.—*Les Anse-aux-Loups* are a collection of 11 islets, adapted only for turtle-fishing.—*St Pierre* is an uninhabited island, 750 miles N.W. from Mauritius. It is 6 miles long, but almost inaccessible; its coasts present nothing but immense blocks of coral, against which the sea dashes violently.—The islands of *St Paul* and *Amsterdam* are above 1450 miles S.E. by S. from Mauritius. They are difficult of access, and exposed to cold and tempests.

SOCOTORA.] The island of Socotora, or Socotra, is situated in the Indian ocean, about 45 leagues from Cape Guardafui. Its soil is dry, strong, and almost destitute of water and vegetation: the dust of the shore is carried by the wind even to the summit of the central chain of mountains. Nevertheless, in the sheltered valleys, the best aloes, as well as a great quantity of dates, are produced. It abounds in goats and poultry, but there are very few oxen. Besides the *mosambra*, or gum extracted from the aloes, cinnamon and dragon's blood are exported from the island. Amber is thrown up from the sea. Coral is very common, and the houses of *Tamarida*, the principal city, are constructed with it. The island has no perfectly secure harbour. It is governed by a shiek, who is subject to the imam of Muscat or Arabia. This island, which even in periods of antiquity served as a station for merchants, might even now become an important one, to any nation wishing to explore Arabia and Eastern Africa. Yet, since the 16th century, it has continued to be disregarded by Europeans.





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